

A COMMUNICATIVE-FUNCTIONAL ENGLISH CURRICULUM  
FOR INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL IN SAUDI ARABIA:  
"A MODEL FOR ENGLISH SYLLABUS DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION"

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Declaration:

This thesis is my own work and composition.

November, 1988

Dedication

dedicated to the memory of:

My Mother, whom I lost whilst working on this Paper

and for:

My Father, May Allah Let Me Enjoy His Presence

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الحمد لله رب العالمين . الرحمن الرحيم . مالك  
يوم الدين . إليك نعبر وإياك نستعير .  
إهدنا الصراط المستقيم . صراط الذي أنعمت  
عليه غير المغضوب عليهم ولا الضالين .

In the name of God, Most Gracious, Most Merciful

"Praise be to God, the cherisher and Sustainer of the  
Worlds; Most Gracious, Most Merciful; Master of the Day of  
Judgment. Thee do we worship. And Thine aid we seek,  
Show us the straight way. The way of those whom Thou has  
bestowed Thy Grace. Those whose (portion) is not wrath.  
And who go not astray."



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## ABSTRACT

This thesis attempts to develop a working model for the creation of an effective English language programme in Saudi Arabian intermediate school for boys. The study evaluates the current English programme (SASE) from its construction and pedagogical standpoints. It does this against a survey of views and needs obtained from students, teachers, supervisors and other influential specialists in English language in addition to the parents of the students concerned. The results of the analysis and the needs-survey raise a serious demand for a new syllabus which should be based on the communicative-functional approach but taking the student's educational and vocational purposes into consideration equally with the society's requirements. The needs are qualitatively analysed in order to represent the authentic and general desires and interests, particularly for students, in terms of specific objectives. The learning experiences and content are selected to fulfil such objectives but to account for the contrasts in culture and language between English and Arabic. The implementation of the model is operationalised in terms of methodology of classroom instruction. To ensure reliable implementation of the Model other components like teacher-education and instructional supervision should be regarded as a part of the curriculum planning. The two components complement each other in the Model so as to reflect the integrative scheme of communicative/functional design of English syllabus in intermediate stage.

## ABBREVIATIONS

1st	First Grade Intermediate
2nd	Second Grade Intermediate
3rd	Third Grade Intermediate
adv	Advisor
Bulletins	Official bulletins administered by The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia
Ch	Chapter
Course	The Intermediate Syllabus
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
F	Flashcards
H	Arabic Calendar for 'Hijra'
PB	Pupil's Book
SASE	Saudi Arabian School's English
SD	Standard Deviation
STB	Student Text-Book
TB	Teacher Book
TGB	Teacher Guide Book
W	Wallcharts
WB	Work Book
Wr	Writer

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

This Chapter gives a historical and cultural background of teaching English with a brief account of the geography and economy of Saudi Arabia. It also describes the need and purposes for this study and describes the steps and general procedures which are adopted throughout the thesis. Finally the Chapter gives the limitations by which this study is bound.

### 1.1. Saudi Arabia: Historical Background

Saudi Arabia as a Kingdom was unified in 1932 by King Abdul Aziz Bin Saud, Father of King Fahad. Its population is about eight millions, a quarter of them are rural inhabitants. It is bounded to the West by the Red Sea; to the North by Jordan, Iraq and Kuwait, to the East by the Gulf, Qatar, the United Arab Emirates and Oman; to the South by North Yemen and South Yemen. Saudi Arabia has an approximate area of 865,000 square miles which equals four-fifths of the total area of the Arabian peninsula (AL-Saggaf, 1981). The capital of Saudi Arabia is Riyadh with 660,000 people: the other principal cities are Makkah (the Holy City and the spiritual capital of Islam), Madina (the Holy City and the capital of Islam at the time of Prophet Mohammad), Jeddah (the largest gateway to the Kingdom which was founded in 647 A.D.) and Damman (the important seaport on the Gulf). The territory of Saudi Arabia consists of five main provinces, namely: Western, Central, Eastern, Southern and Northern. The Western Province has a sub-tropical climate which has warm summers with a high percentage of humidity as it faces the Red Sea. The winters are moderate and have light rains in the month of November through to February. The Central Province has dry and hot summers and dry cold winters, while the Eastern Province has a typical sub-tropical climate similar to the Western Province. The



Southern Province (Abha) and Northern Province have moderate weather during summers but very cold winters. Islam is the religion of the country and Arabic is the first and official language. English, as well as some Asian and African languages are also spoken besides Arabic, but in limited situations. The Saudi Riyal is the unit of currency which is backed by gold reserves and convertible foreign currency. The official holidays in Saudi Arabia are religiously orientated. Friday is the official weekend-holiday when all Government offices and most business are closed. It is observed by Islam as a day of special worship and rest from business, thus the week starts always on Saturday. The Hijri Calendar of 12 lunar months consisting of 354 days is the Kingdom's official calendar which provides for two official holidays: Eid al-Fitr (or the Feast of Breaking-fast) and Eidal Adha (the Feast of Sacrifice). The first feast lasts between ten to fifteen days and the second feast lasts between ten to twelve days during which all the Government offices, private sector businesses and educational institutes are closed (Ministry of Information, 1988).

## 1.2. Education

As the heartland of Islam, education in Saudi Arabia is based on the study of the Quran which gives education the status of religious duty. The roots of education in Saudia Arabia go, therefore, deep into the Islamic heritage which started fourteen centuries earlier at the time of Prophet Mohammad. Makkah and Medina are the two cities which have been carrying out that message. They did not have school buildings but they did have mosques which have borne their responsibilities towards education and instruction. The sort of teaching which dominated in that phase was 'the model' in which the

students would sit in a circle with the teacher in an armchair in the centre, imitating him in everything, in which he should be a good example to be copied. Many schools (kuttabs) were established in the early Islamic era, especially around the Holy Places in Makkah and Madina. Those schools were the foundation for the modern system of education in Saudi Arabia which began in 1923 by establishing the Directorate of Education. When the Ministry of Education was established in 1953 a new era in the history of Education in Saudi Arabia appeared. At the present, this responsibility for education lies with one or another of the following authorities:

- "1 - The Ministry of Education, which is the principle authority for boys' education to the end of the second<sup>ary</sup> grade.
- 2 - Presidency of Girls' Education which was founded in 1960 and established a complete system of education for the Saudi girls which goes up from the elementary stage to intermediate and secondary stages.
- 3 - The Ministry of Higher Education which was founded in 1976 and which is responsible for universities and junior colleges."

(Nyrop, 1977)

The educational structure in the Kingdom is divided into the three main levels preceded by pre-school education. At the pre-school stage there are kindergartens which cater to the children of age group 4-6. The first level of education is the elementary stage which is of six years duration, the second level is divided into two stages - intermediate and secondary - each lasting three years. In the second year of the secondary stage students choose either the science or arts subjects. The third level is higher education which is provided in a number of universities and colleges located in different parts of the Kingdom.

The Educational Policy of the Kingdom lays down the following general aims of education:

"The purpose of education is to have the student understand Islam in a correct comprehensive manner, to plant and spread the Islamic creed, to furnish the student with the values, teachings and ideals of Islam, to equip him with the various skills and knowledge, to develop his conduct in constructive directions, to develop the society economically, socially and culturally, and to prepare the individual to become a useful member in the building of his community."

(The Ministry of Education, 1974)

### 1.3. English in education

There is no accurate date for the start of teaching/learning English, but it is agreed that the formal beginning was in 1927 - just after the establishment of the Directorate of Education (1923). It appeared first in secondary schools as a subject with French but with no definite syllabus. When the system of education changed with the creation of the intermediate stage, in 1958, English became a definite subject there while French remained only at secondary. The syllabus was brought from neighbouring countries but did not fit into customary Saudi education nor did it meet the interests of the learner. The programme, which was called 'Living English for The Arab World' ran for twenty years or so till 1980 when a new English programme was especially designed and introduced to intermediate and secondary schools. The current programme is called 'Saudi Arabian Schools English' - SASE which, to some extent, responds positively to the aspirations and needs of the Saudi society and learners (AL-Subahi in IATEFL, 1988).

### 1.4. Need for the Study

Since English has become the principal world language because of the important position it plays in today's economy and politics, Saudi Arabia adopted it as a communicative and instructional language. In other words, as English becomes the world's first language, there should be Saudis available who are able to propagate



Islam and counter the sophisticated arguments issued against it.

Saudi Arabia is also regarded as the heartland of Islam and about two million pilgrims of different nationalities and origins come to the country each year to perform pilgrimages. In addition, many thousands come to Saudi Arabia during the year to do Umra (a religious rite) and visit holy places in Makkah and Madina. Obviously such visitors need to communicate with their Saudi hosts, and English, for many of them is the lingua franca; this situation demands Saudis who know English to entertain their guests. Due to the developing phase the country is passing through, English is the most prominent agency which connects the Saudi diplomacy and commerce with English speaking Countries in Europe, America and Australia. The expansion of oil industries and projects, on which the country relies, necessitates English as a medium of instruction in the programme for training the manpower who will staff the technical positions created by these industries. The progress the country witnesses and the internal business it carries out entails foreign companies and banks participating in the process of development; another position which demands the availability of Saudis who can manage their business and transactions in English.

Finally, English is an effective means for instruction and communication inside and outside Saudi Arabia. Instruction in King Fahad University of Petroleum and Minerals and all medicine and engineering Colleges in Saudi Universities is done in English. Further, a large number of Saudis study abroad in Britain, United States, Canada and Australia where English is necessary as a medium of Communication and academic instruction (AL-Subahi, 1988).



All these purposes and requirements should be recognised by the English syllabus in both grades, intermediate and secondary. Nevertheless, communication should be the channel and medium through which the educational and academic purposes are achieved. Thus, English in intermediate stage should be devoted to fulfilling certain communicative functions. The current English syllabus in intermediate stage - SASE - does not adequately apply the functional/notional approach. It is not able to meet the communicative and educational needs and aspirations of the students to cope with the speed of progress in the country. The statements of objectives are built on the writer's and supervisor's guesses of what could be the purposes of the students, not based on scientific survey. The society's aims are not surveyed and included in the structure of the objectives. The objectives are more repetitions of the goals set by the Ministry of Education. There is neither indication of any aspect of English culture, nor contextual facts, values or skills in them. Furthermore, the objectives are stated implicitly in general broad terms.

Motivation is important for the intermediate stage students since their enthusiasm is tempered partly by their internal state of willingness to learn (intrinsic motivation) and partly by realizing reasons for learning (extrinsic motivation). SASE objectives are not stated appropriately for teachers or learners which makes extrinsic motivation difficult to develop. In other words, students cannot see clear purposes for learning the English in the lessons and thus their instrumental maturation is handicapped. Some lessons seem to be difficult to understand for adolescents in intermediate stage, e.g. 'planet'. Conflict sometimes exists between target situations and local situations in some lessons such as 'shops' (a butcher does not

sell chicken in Saudi Arabia). The absence of authentic material is another reason for the lack of motivation. The limited functions embedded in the syllabus contexts minimize the chance for providing a student with stimulating material since functional material is more likely to offer the student stimuli that are personally relevant (Balet, 1985). The syllabus fails, therefore, to cater for functions and notions in the instructional situations. Social and interpersonal functions such as: finding out intellectual and moral attitudes, meeting people, taking leave or attracting attention which are important in daily life do not exist in the syllabus. Simultaneously, notions of non-availability, presence, absence, origins, priority, delay, adequacy are not found. The content of SASE focusses on the person's knowledge of English linguistics and how to create a sentence. It does not focus on how the student uses English sentences in real-life situations. The structural emphasis throughout the syllabus may be on tenses and objectives but it ignores requests and expressions. Passive forms, for example, are insufficiently treated while indirect speech and modal auxiliaries have a minor place in the structural content. Stress and intonation are not underlined as determinants of the aural-oral skills. There is a shortage of expressions and formulas which are essential for the intermediate-beginners for communicating in and outside the classroom such as: 'He's absent', 'I am present', 'Tim's up', 'It's time to go home', 'You are welcome', 'All the best', 'Great'.

Since there are no precise objectives defined for the syllabus there is not a clear-cut standard for selection or sequential development. The lack of survey of the student's needs and desires defeat the attempts of the syllabus writer to select and organise material, because the selection and organisation in this case can

only follow his perspectives and the subject-matter logic. Such titles as: 'Say the numbers (Unit 1), 'I am Saud' (Unit 2), 'Say the alphabet' (Unit 3), 'Where is he ?' (Unit 4) are heterogeneous although they are sequential. The phonetic sequence in language learning does not follow any regularities as criteria except those applying to the gradation of objectives and the functions they carry. Nevertheless, the contrasts between the native and the targets language's phonetic system have to be considered. In other words, English / /, /p/ and /v/ have to be delayed in the first syllabus until the student has a good grasp of English phonology since they have no counterparts in Arabic. The grammatical sequence in the syllabus is based on the traditional approach in as much as articles 'the', 'a', and 'an' are ordered in learning. On the other hand, 'going to' is introduced instead of 'will' and 'shall' although the latter are more common, easy in pronunciation and semantically less difficult than the former since 'going to' consists of three morphemes: verb + participle + preposition. The negation is introduced too early at the first grade; statement sentences usually come first in learning English sentences because negation has more than one sign (not, n't, no, neither, nor) which is difficult for beginners to learn.

The four skills and abilities of: listening, speaking, reading and writing are claimed to function communicatively in the syllabus, however, lack of motivation and authenticity in addition to the concentration on the English discrete elements throw doubt on such a claim. Techniques used for instruction are: chorus work, asking questions, correction, getting pupils to ask questions, talking, individualizing learning with group and pair group. Games and role plays are rarely used and usually realized as extra curricular



activities which are described by the writer as: "not an essential part of the course" (Field\_TB). Simulation and drama are not prescribed as games or activities despite the prominent role they play in arousing students' motivation and promoting their ability to communicate in English. The audio-visual aids designed for the syllabuses are: wallcharts, flash-cards and cassettes. All of these are contrived; even the pictures in the textbooks are drawn by hand. Instruction in the syllabus follows the traditional theory which considers language as a content subject and not as a skill subject. It develops the competence of the student in English knowledge rather than performance. The student is still assessed with reference to his competence in knowledge of English (grammar, vocabulary) rather than his performance and use of the language. Student's progress is only assessed in discrete skills: reading and writing, while the integrated skills: listening and speaking are wholly ignored. Even test items on reading and writing do not assess the ability of the student to read and write but the cognitive skills of linguistic reading and writing (Widdowson- 1978).

Many specialists in English language in the country acknowledge this shortcoming of the current syllabus. They say that:

"the curriculum of English language in intermediate and secondary schools does not go along with the objectives on which it is designed".

(AL-Ahaydib, 1986)

They argue that students do not have the basic language skills which they can practice in daily life. Al-Ahaydib (1986) stated:

"As recently as April, 1984, the weakness in English among the intermediate and secondary school students continued to attract headlines in the national press. There were detailed discussions about the causes of this weakness and the best way to remedy it."

(pp. 6-7)

On this basis the creation of a new syllabus becomes an unavoidable process: to diagnose the deficiencies created by the current syllabus and construct a new syllabus able to satisfy the Communicative/functional needs of the students.

#### 1.5. Limitation of the Study

Since education is sexually segregated in Saudi Arabia after the age of seven according to the tenants of conservative Islam, girls' education has a separate administration which is called 'General Presidency of Girls Education' - mentioned earlier. Therefore, the study is only concerned with intermediate school boys and their English curriculum which is different from girls' English curriculum. The study also does not prescribe text-books or teachers' books but identifies material and suggests possible contexts and situations for applying the material to achieve objectives and purposes of learning.

#### 1.6. Organisation of the Study

The remaining Chapters are organised in such a way as to show the root of the problems and deficiencies of the current syllabus of English from where the new communicative/functional Model can be planned. Thus, it starts (Chapter Two) by clarification of the three terms: aim, goal and objective, and their use in curriculum planning, then reviewing contemporary ideas in designing a language syllabus. Chapter Three discusses the data collected and interpreted; part of it is devoted to a survey of students', teachers' and supervisors' attitudes and feelings about SASE, while the major part concentrates on eliciting the sample's desires and needs for the target Model. Chapter Four structures the body of the Model which is based on the needs of students and aspirations of

society in Saudi Arabia taking into account all internal and external factors influencing its implementation. Chapter Five presents the methods and techniques of implementing the Model based on the theories of the communicative and functional approaches of language teaching/learning. Since teacher and supervisor of English have a direct influence on teaching and learning, Chapter Six deals with teacher education and strategies of supervision. The last Chapter (Chapter Seven) discusses the feasibility of applying such a Model from three standpoints: 'inputs, intakes and outputs' and draws conclusions and recommendations concerning operationalisation of the Model in terms of text-books and material.

**CHAPTER TWO**

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

## Introductory:

This Chapter is divided into seven sections. Each section reviews a major part of the thesis. The first section (2.1) gives a general picture of curriculum planning and syllabus design in the field of school education. It demonstrates the different types of curriculum construction and the processes of syllabus-design, instruction and supervision. Since the focus of the Model is to be on aims and objectives the second and third sections (2.2., 2.3.) are devoted to clarifying the implicit meaning of the three words: aims, goals and objectives and the assumptions which underlie their use as an effective tool for bringing about the preset outcomes. Section four elaborates the sources and criteria of stating objectives exemplified by some famous models that occur in the field. Since language-syllabus design differs in some principles from the planning of other aspects of school curriculum, section five (2.5) reviews the traditional and recent philosophy underlying language syllabus design. Section six illustrates the type of education required for preparing a language teacher, whereas the last section reviews ten Ph.D. studies concerning the English curriculum in Saudi Arabia.



## 2.1. Curriculum Planning

'Curriculum' is usually used to cover the comprehensive steps and procedures which orient, construct and implement the educational policy which concerns a school-subject, while 'syllabus' is the main part of these steps which is related to the small targets, content and methodology.<sup>(1)</sup> Planning is widely used with curriculum to refer to the overall arrangements and organisation concerning the objectives, content, methodology and evaluation of the latter two aspects with reference to the objectives stated. Designing is more associated with syllabus, though it is embedded in the process of planning (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986). It is defined as a deliberate process of devising and selecting the elements, techniques and procedures that constitute some object or endeavour (Pratt, 1980). By the educational design of a programme is meant a particular shape, framework or pattern of learning opportunities which are described in the subject's textbook, teaching media, and the strategies of teaching assessment. Three types of planning are usually referred to when decisions are made to construct a school syllabus; namely, systematic planning, expedient planning and piecemeal planning. In systematic planning objectives are defined first and then comes the selection of means and procedures. Expedient planning prefers to start with means and procedures, but objectives are subsequently determined. Piece-meal planning identifies some rough definition of the more important aims before considering the resources needed, then goes back again to a more precise definition of objectives. In a mixture of the last two types, ends and means are revalued and recycled until they fit each other (Davies, 1976). Involved in these

(1) See Terminology - Ch.1.

forms of three planning are four categories of design: viz, subject matter design, human traits design, social function design and individual needs design (Saylor et al, 1981). Planning a curriculum comprises five integrated operations of: setting the general aims and goals of the subject matter in terms of broad general targets expressing the overall desires of the community, framing the hierarchy of the syllabus design, teacher education, instructional supervision and finally evaluating all these components and their role in achieving the general aims. Designing a syllabus, on the other hand, incorporates stating objectives and specific objectives, selecting and organising learning experiences, selecting and arranging contextual material and lastly designing means of assessing students' achievement of the syllabus objectives. Aims and objectives will be discussed separately in the next two sections (2.2., 2.3.).

#### 2.1.1. Selection of Learning Experiences

In theory it is easy to distinguish between learning experiences and the content of a subject but in practice it is a fairly complex task since they are interrelated and interdependent. Content of a subject is those things, material and substance which are displayed or presented to learners, while learning experiences are what the learner does, not things or substance he is exposed to. The learning experience is defined by Tyler as:

"the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react"  
(Tyler, 1949:37)

Learning experiences are influenced by the content of the subject. The syllabus designer cannot select appropriate experiences without a thorough knowledge of what material the subject contains. On the

other hand, selection of learning experiences and content are both governed by the pre stated objectives of the course. Learning experiences are usually expressed in terms of functions, activities and tasks. On the other hand, knowing is not doing. A student may become crammed without being able to use the facts and knowledge he has. Equally, two students can have the same lesson in one class but each one may have a different experience from the other. Experiences are often divided into direct and vicarious. Learning at school is rarely done by direct experience and a need for vicarious experience is therefore called for. Repeating the discoveries of others, preparing chemicals in a lab, drawing a map and showing locations on it are examples of vicarious experiences. When experience is vicarious it should be associated by pictorial, graphic or verbal means to previous experience to be more efficient and effective. Whereas direct experience are preferable for younger learners, vicarious experience is more relevant to adults who are able to make generalisation and handle abstractions (Ibid).

There are certain characteristics by which learning experiences are judged as efficient and effective. Effective learning experiences have to be purposeful, integrating, continuous and interactive. They should serve certain targets and be related to life problems. Students should feel comfortable and unthreatened. The experiences should apply to more than one unit or level of the course and their implications be able to cover a wide range of principles. Continuity refers to the progression in experiences each depending on the previous one, concurrently it introduces new but more sophisticated experiences that widen the perception of the learner for the topic area. Learning experiences can be interactive only when they satisfy the student's needs and meet his interests.



Based on these qualities, there should be then some criteria on which selection of learning experience can rely. It is generally argued that validity, comprehensiveness, relevance to life, attainment and balance are the most important criteria for guiding experiences' selection. Validity refers to the achievement of the instructional objectives by the learning experiences. In other words, the learning experiences should give the student a chance for performing the kind of behaviour involved in the prestated objectives. Learning experiences should also be extensive to include both cognitive and affective areas of the student's development. The principle of scope requires experiences to cover a wide range of objectives since behaviours cannot be changed without experiences. The contexts of learning experiences should be functional and fulfil certain purposes in life present and future. The experiences selected for learning should enable the student to manipulate and apply various aspects and facts of the subject on life. Learning experiences have to be attainable by the learners; their level of complexity should not be above the level of the learner's maturity. The last criterion is the achievement of balance between the societal demands and students' needs within the learning experience. Wheeler (1967) reported that:

"Different individuals may require a different balance of activities at any one time or over a short period, while the same individual may require a different balance of learning experiences at different periods of development".

(p:160)

### 2.1.2. Selection of Content

For the process of selecting content, it is necessary to identify the fundamentals of the subject, techniques and main points and principles. Content should be selected to deal with multiple

learnings and to help in fulfilling prestated objectives. Because it is difficult to teach the whole knowledge and information of the universe in one level or stage of school learning, rather it is easier to select from that bulk the part which matches the targets preset for the subject throughout the learning experiences that have been selected beforehand. The content selected for a subject should have certain characteristics; amongst are validity, relevance to students' needs, relevance to students' contemporary life, accessibility and consistency. The content has to be valid by promoting the outcomes which are implied in the instructional objectives and expressed by means of the learning experiences. Material selected should satisfy the needs and interests of learners to some extent as this is a supplementary criterion for facilitating the choice between alternatives. Wheeler (1967) in this concern points out:

"This is not to suggest that education should be based upon children's interests which are often as trivial as they are ephemeral. It is simply to state that notice must be taken of them".

(p:153)

Content is to be selected according to its usefulness to learners in solving life problems. Therefore, selection should be for those fundamental understandings which are able to organise

'the discrete facts and help to explain them, take account of interrelationships and can be employed for prediction and the discovery of new knowledge'.

(Taba, 1962:270)

Content selected for a subject should be learnable. Materials of the content have to be suitable to the learner's average age and the phase of intellectual growth. Good content should provide an orientation to the environment around. It should be consistent with social realities. Briefly, it can be said that the content of any school subject should deal with three domains of knowledge:

universal abstractions, specifics, and means of dealing with specifics. The first domain includes theories, principles and generalizations. The second embraces facts and terminology, while the third involves methods, criteria and classifications (Doll, 1978).

### 2.1.3. Organisation and Gradation of Learning Experiences

Organisation is different from gradation. Organisation is the process of arranging items in a system based on defined principles whereas gradation is the condition of gradual change of these items from one state to another. Gradation answers the questions: what goes with what? What comes before what? Learning experiences which have been selected cannot be taught at once, something should come before or after something else. They should be organised to fit learners' needs and their intellectual growth because organisation influences the efficiency of instruction and the degree to which major educational changes are brought about in learners (Tyler, 1949). Experiences have to be set round centres in which life requirements and learners' interests and demands are considered. Herrick (in Smith, 1957) suggested five organising centres based on five qualities: significance, accessibility, breadth, capacity for organisation and capacity for development. These centres are:

1. ideas: about time, space, future, man, identity, truth, etc. which are fundamental for elementary education.
2. materials: teaching media and realia contributing to the achievement of objectives.
3. displays, collections, exhibits etc.
4. places: which are used by the learners where direct experience can be learned and acquired.



5. people: who are concerned with direct experiences whether they are discoverers, exporters, scientists or explorers.

(pp.79-80)

Phonix (1964) proposes different centres of organisation in which fundamental ideas come first followed by the discipline which constitute the realms. He develops a sequence of concepts as major centres for organisation. Goodlad offered another group of organising centres in which the learning experience is to:

'(a) encourage practice of the desired behaviours; (b) encourage simultaneous practice of several behaviours; (c) be planned with full awareness of preceding and succeeding learning; (d) support learning in other areas of instructions; (e) cater for a wide range of levels of accomplishment, interests and learning style; (f) have intrinsic educational significance, and lead on to other times, places and ideas'.

(Goodlad - in Wheeler - 1967:250)

Nevertheless, the organisation of learning experiences is determined by the purposes and objectives of the course when they are specifically analysed. Their order depends on their difficulty, interrelation and interdependence with others.

#### 2.1.4. Organization and Sequence of Content

It is impossible to teach the whole of the subject matter in one scholastic term and year, and difficult to teach the amount selected without organising it round cores or centres. In other words if the student is

'to learn A and B he must either learn A and then B, B and then A or a bit from each'.

(Taba, 1962:290)

Content organisation is both difficult and complex and it is seen as a major problem in syllabus development. Many attempts have been made to state criteria for valid organisation of content. Tyler suggests three: continuity, sequence and integration. Continuity refers to the vertical reiteration of major curriculum elements where the same piece of content recurs over time. Sequence entails that

each successive part should go more deeply into the matters involved. Taba (1962) referred to these two criteria as: width and depth. The criterion of integration denotes the horizontal relationship of the subject matter content to the content of other school subjects.

Rowntree describes different types of content sequence. He discusses seven logical orders of subject-matter content: 1 - topic by topic; 2 - chronological; 3 - causal; 4 - structural logic; 5 - problem centred; 6 - spiral and 7 - backward chaining. Topic by topic organisation has no particular sequence since the content is divided into separate topics such as: French poets, English poets, Latin poets etc. Parallel themes usually appear in this organisation rather than sequential ones. Broudy, Smith, Burnett and Goodlad (Wheeler, 1967) discuss this type of sequence; however they went further to grade the topics according to priorities. Chronological organisation usually applies to history or science since events and discoveries are easily ordered according to their time of occurrence e.g. Europe before 1848, Europe after the revolution, the First World War; the Second World War. Causal sequences applies to meteorology and geomorphology where the student explains the relationship between cause and effect. In a structural logic sequence certain topics depend on others and cannot be isolated nor can they be learned without prior understanding of other topics. This sort of sequence is often found in mathematics where addition should precede multiplication, and subtraction division. It partly applies to any subject since most subjects have a certain amount of structural logic:

"in learning a new language it may be clear that the student must learn to discriminate between sounds in the language before he can imitate them in his own speech"

(Rowntree, 1981:112)

The problem centred sequence is not very much different from the



problem solving technique which is used in social sciences. The problem-centre is wider since a big problem is presented to students which calls for a large number of alternative solutions. The sequence requires preliminary information in order to promote student's attempts to offer interpretations. The sixth type of sequence is the 'spiral' in which the learner meets a set of concepts repeatedly in gradually increasing depth during his progress through the subject matter, dealing with the same concepts each time but in a more sophisticated way. The last sequence - backward chaining - starts with the last element of the selected content and moves backwards and forwards interchangeably.

On the other hand, there are three approaches to organisation of content: the subject matter, the life needs and the learners' requirements. The balance amongst these three is determined by the prestated objectives of the course and the experiences selected and organised for it. Content can be organised round learners' needs but in mass education learners' different needs and interests are difficult to classify. If life needs and social problems are listed for core organisation learners may find content boring. If the content is organised wholly in accordance with the subject matter it could easily be invalid and useless in life. Nevertheless, any learning sequence can be used with any subject depending on the purposes and objectives it serves, equally, several types of gradation might mingle and interact in one subject. For more specific unit of gradation, there are always two kinds of order; namely, 'logical' and 'psychological'. The logical order dictates that simple aspects should come before complex, part before whole and concrete before abstract; while the reverse is implied by psychological order. A compromise, therefore, between both extremes is

required. Content of curriculum is to be graded partially from simple-to-complex and complex-to-simple, from whole-to-part and from part-to-whole, and from concrete-to-abstract and abstract-to-concrete; each serving different demands, meeting divergent interests and fulfilling a wide range of objectives (Rowntree, 1981).

#### 2.1.5. Instruction

Teaching is defined as the process of making and undertaking decisions concerning the school syllabus before, during and after its instruction and implementation, while learning is defined as the process of participating in what the teacher exposes and presents or implements from the syllabus. There are two famous theories of learning; viz. the 'cognitive code theory' and the 'operant conditioning theory'. Cognitive code theory presupposes an innate mental capacity in a learner which helps him relate the new material with that already known. Operant conditioning theory is based on experimentation indicating

'that bands can be forged between a stimulus and a response and that responses are shaped and strengthened or extinguished by reinforcements or rewards which should always follow the learner's response to a stimulus'

(Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973: 12)

The two theories are compatible rather than competitive. The learner's mental ability is an internal state of his capacity to manipulate a learning situation. Such ability is developed only if such learning is reinforced by a stimulus or a reward which is referred to as an external factor. The reward can be foreseeing the results or benefits from learning as happens in casual situations of learning; or it can be tangible rewards, such as a gift for passing an important test. Classroom instruction can be facilitated either by demonstrating the benefits of that learning or by developing an

internal appetite for learning. Conditioning learning is required because official instruction is usually limited to a proportion of time and effort (Kelly, 1987). A fresh learner when learning a new material or skill tries to reduce its complexity to more manageable aspects in order to interpret it and assimilate it. The act of instruction is as complex and continuous as one cannot define the phases a learner and an instructor pass through to achieve instruction and learning. Nevertheless, Gagne and Briggs (1974) define eight phases of instruction in order to manifest what operations are concealed in teaching/learning situations. The first phase they call the 'motivation phase'. A learner in this phase must be motivated toward learning either intrinsically or extrinsically. In intrinsic - or integrated - motivation the reward is associated with bodily pleasures or a mental satisfaction. When the learner cannot be intrinsically motivated for such reasons as intellectual immaturity or lack of interest in a programme's outcomes, generating an 'expectancy' of a reward is required for achieving targets and purposes of learning. In doing so the teacher may clarify and simplify specific objectives of a lesson, asking questions which tap the learner's interests or illustrating with realia and media simple introductory features of the new material. The second phase is called the 'apprehending phase' and is divided into three processes starting with the learner's attending to the situation in order to select those parts that fulfil his needs, then perceiving those parts with similar selectivity. The last process is comprehending the significance of those parts, which depends on the learner's mental ability and his background knowledge of the topic. The skill of the teacher at timing, grading and sequencing material is vital for the learner to apprehend those features which are most important. The



third phase is the 'acquisition phase' which is interpreted as the moment in time at which some newly formed entity is entered into the short term memory, later to be further transformed into a 'persisting state' in long term memory. This phase is defined also as the process of encoding data received. The teacher's ordering and structuring of material again facilitate the process of acquisition. Ways in which the data are encoded may also be suggested by the teacher. The fourth phase is 'retention' where the material encoded in the last phase enters the long-term memory. Verbal statements, demonstrated by: hints, pictures, realia or diagrams are recommended for the teacher in this phase to reinforce storing away of what has been learned. The fifth phase is the 'recall' phase in which the act is exhibited in some way as performance:

"Somehow, the memory store is searched and the learned entity revived. What has been stored becomes accessible. The process is presumably at work even for learning which has occurred a few minutes previously."

(Gagne, 1974:78)

The teacher asks questions, sets tests or provides review material and exercises. The retrieved material in the fifth stage needs to be applied in different contexts if it is to be generalised. The sixth phase of 'generalization' refers to the transfer of learning. The teacher's job is to supply as varied contexts as possible in which the learned material is applied. The 'performance' phase is the seventh phase where the learner is given the opportunity to show what he has learned. The opportunities given by a teacher to apply what has been grasped are essential to promote learning. This phase is connected with the last 'feedback' phase at which point the learner finds out what objectives and purposes of learning he has achieved. It is a crucial stage for the teacher since he can assess the learner's performance with reference to the objectives stated (Ibid).

#### 2.1.6. Instructional Supervision

Instructional supervision is the process of directing, advising and assessing the teaching/learning operation in order to improve instruction. Eye and Netzer (1965) defined supervision as

'that phase of school administration which deals primarily with the achievement of the appropriate selected instructional expectations of educational service'.

(P.12)

It is also defined as

'the direction of teaching, the making of decisions concerning teaching and actions taken to change teaching'.

(Batten, 1961:1)

Both definitions view the supervisor's role not only as improving teaching but also as a means by which instruction can be evaluated.

In the field of education, instructional supervision is an inseparable part of schooling and it is regarded as complementary to instruction. Supervision can either be clinical or professional. In clinical supervision, a supervisor plays the role of the assessor or inspector who looks for the teacher's slips and errors criticizing him and assessing his competence according to those faults. Supervision in this sense is very unproductive since it does not appreciate teacher's work and considers him as a person who always needs rigid directions. They are inspectors or assessors rather than advisors or organisers. AL-Habeeb (1981) pictures the role of such supervisors as the:

"powerful authorities who went to schools to inspect the work of teachers and students. They were more interested in firing teachers than in helping to improve their teaching"

(p:21)

Where education is centrally directed such supervision is likely to be found.

The second type of supervision carries the meaning of assistance where the supervisor is seen as an organiser or co-ordinator who

gives advice, knowledge and wisdom to the teacher. This supervision is productive inasmuch as it endeavours to improve the instructional situations. There is no rigid assessment of teacher's work, no inspection of his mistakes and slips but negotiation and compromise for problems and difficulties. Supervisors as advisors or organisers only ask questions such as: What do you feel about the lesson? Can you think of other ways of setting the scene? instead of giving orders. These roles as Harris (1963) mentioned are:

"developing curriculum, organising for instruction, staffing, providing facilities, providing materials, arranging for in-service education, orienting new staff members, relating social services, developing public relations and evaluating".

(pp 13-14)



## 2.2. Aims, Goals and Objectives: definition and difference

When reference is made to objectives, three terms should be clarified in order to demonstrate obvious realisation of them. Aims, goals and objectives are three concepts which apparently refer to one concept but in fact imply three distinct meanings with three definite functions. Recently the phrase aim begins to disappear from the curriculum planning for the idealistic atmosphere it shadows and substituted by the other two phrases 'goal' and 'objective'.

### 2.2.1. Aims

The word 'aim' could be a verb or a noun. If it is a verb, it means: points towards, e.g. "He aimed (his gun) at the tiger and fired". Or, it might mean 'send direct': "Tom got angry with his brother and aimed a heavy book at his head". The verb aim, on the other hand, can be used to mean something that you have as a plan or intention, especially during a friendly conversation: "Harry aims at becoming a doctor", which means he intends to join the medicine-college. If it is a noun it gives the meaning of the act of aiming or purpose, e.g. "He missed his aim", or "He has only one aim and object in life - to make a fortune before he is fifty or to be a millionaire" (Hornby, 1984). Frequently, the term "aim" is used to mean intention towards a target whether this target occurs at the moment or will occur in future.

When the term "aims" is used in education in general it might mean the general achievements of education, viz. growth, citizenship, goodness or liberty. The Harvard Committee's Report - 'General Education in a Free Society' - says:

"Education must look to the whole man. It has been wisely said that education aims at the good man, the good citizen, and the useful man. The aim of liberal education is the development of the whole man; and the human nature involved instincts and sentiments as well as the intellect"  
(Richmond, 1972:174)

Another view of "aims" is pointed out by Peters who says that aims:

"can also relate to principles imminent in procedures of education, such as the importance of freedom and individual origination"

(Peters - in Griffin - 1983:20)

It can be said, then, that aims could be realized as characteristics of that person who is involved in that phase of educational experience. Accordingly, such concepts as "freedom" is considered an aim of education, as well as the characters of the individual referred to as "educated person". Hence, Peters attempts to penetrate the body of aims when he says that:

"if there are to be aims of education, they can be understood only against a background in which the general criteria involved in being educated are taken for granted".

(Ibid)

Peters argues in this context that in the purpose of conceiving what it means by "freedom" such a term should be analysed philosophically to limit the range of understanding it could transmit.

Another view of defining aims is seen through Davies (1976) who defines the "aim" as

"a general statement, which attempts to give both shape and direction to a set of more detailed intentions for the future. Aims play an important role in making explicit and public those activities that are finally regarded as being educationally valuable and worthwhile".

(p.12)

Davies view on "aims" tends to be somewhat explicit because he looks at "aims" as general guidelines in which each group of activities should contribute to the subject. On the other side of the picture, aims, according to Davies viewpoint, formulate the shape and the quality and the quantity of behaviours desired in the future. These behaviours might not be brought about if aims are absent. On the other hand, aims are, considerably worthless if they are not interpreted in terms of activities.

It seems from the definitions of aims mentioned above that the term is still vague, ambiguous and out of touch. Therefore it should be woven in order to get it more concrete.

The movement towards investigating the real role of aims is introduced by Spencer, Cardinal and Bobbitt (in Davies, 1976). Table 1 shows the three statements:

TABLE 1

Spencer	Cardinal	Bobbitt
1. Self-Preservation	1. Health	1. Health Activities
2. Necessities of life	2. Command of Fundamental Process	2. Mental Fitness
3. Family and children	3. Vocation	3. General Practical activities
4. Social and Political	4. Worthy home-membership	4. Vocational
5. Leisure and Culture	5. Citizenship	5. Home and Family
	6. Ethical Character	6. Citizenship
	7. Worthy Use of Leisure Time	7. Religious
		8. Social Content
		9. Leisure
		10. Social Communication

Although an analogy could be drawn among the three kinds of statements, the background of each one is different. While Bobbitt's 'aims' of education appear to be socially grounded, the other two sets of 'aims' stand on a psychological foundation. Yet, the classification may facilitate processing more practical levels of 'aims'.

Another view about the 'aims' can be seen from the Australian Teachers' Federation's Report (1964) which indicates that the aim of education is:



"to help the child to progress towards the full attainment of his potentialities as an individual and a member of society. State educational systems have a contribution to make in eight fields: (a) fundamental skills and knowledge (communication, calculation, understanding the natural environment); (b) vocational; (c) citizenship; (d) intellectual development; (e) ethical character; (f) aesthetic appreciation; (g) health; (h) worthwhile use of leisure.

(Wheeler, 1967: 81)

Comparing the eight aims of education set by the Australian Report with the three tables of 'aims' previously mentioned, it can be concluded that there is a general agreement of what the framework on 'aims' should be. They came across the main purposes of human-being life. Although this endeavour gives a further push towards the movement of stating educational aims, yet the problem of abstraction arises. Whether the root of the nature of aims is social or psychological, or whether the characteristics of human experience are norms or principles, the aims are still regarded as visionary propositions which entails further clearance in order to be put in use. This is because: (1) accepting aims as they appear in this form would allow much space for various interpretations; (2) different means can lead to different ends. Thus, those general aims are too far removed from the school and the classroom since their use is a limit to teacher.

Wheeler (1967) declares the demands for more explanation of the aims of education. He says that

"these aims of education, put forward by individuals or committees, are not so much goals to be aimed at as viewpoints about the nature and relationships of individuals, culture and society, either as wholes or with respect to various aspects expressed as constructs. As given they are general propositions about the desirable behaviour patterns of social individuals, and in sequence are subject to the semantic and logical difficulties associated with propositions in this field. In addition, they do not always make clear distinctions between general and specialized education".

He goes on to say that the



"statements of aims or of goals at the general level must, however, be checked against some criteria. The following are suggested as minimal for this purpose. Educational aims and goals should be: a - consistent with human rights; b - democratically oriented; c - socially relevant; d - tending to the satisfaction of personal needs, and e - balanced.

(p:83)

These principles by which the value of aims is measured by Wheeler, do not give a considerable specification to aims, but they are a useful step in the direction of precision. However, this trial introduced a new phrase which Wheeler tended to equate with aim. This term is "goals".

#### 2.2.2. Goals

A "goal" is the point marking the end of a race, or it is used in football to mean the posts between which the ball is to be driven in order to score. Yet this noun is figeratively used to mean the object of effort or destination (Hornby, 1984).

Regarding the first sense: 'the point marking the end of a race', which means the end-point of a race-horse, cars, yachts, etc. it can be pointed out that not every competitor who reaches the end-point - goal - will win the prize in a competition. With respect to the second sense where goal is used to indicate "the posts between which the ball is to be driven in order to score", it can be said that not all the goals are aims. To put it more simply, the competitive-team cannot achieve the aim of the match, i.e. Championship: a - if the scores already scored are equal or less than those scored by the other team or b - even if the ball passed the line between the posts the score might not be calculated because the player who scored it is, probably, off-side or touched it by hand. The object of effort could mean that which is required to reach the destination (aim). This procedure might be one goal or more, depending on the circumstances. For Wheeler (op.cit.), it seems that no

distinction is made between "goals" and "aims", indeed they are integrated. However, in another part of his book Wheeler (1967) tries to imply the distinction when he says that

"the very categorization of behavioural outcomes helps in the translation of general aims into ultimate goals. These, it will be remembered, are the outlines or patterns of expected behaviours expressed as categories of intended outcomes, the expected end-products of educational endeavour. At this level concern will be largely with what a generalization means, this being established by analysis or by illustrative examples, or some combination of the two".

(p.107)

But Wheeler does not completely ignore the role of goals as he said that:

"They do supply indirect guidance, because they state in general but behavioural terms what the teacher is trying to achieve. More direct guidance comes from the use of mediate and proximate goals, and from the operation of other phases of the curriculum process'.

(Ibid:p.110)

It seems from the above discussion that goals are more concrete assumptions than aims which are considered abstract and idealistic. Even though they are poor guides towards the selection of educational experience, they provide indirect guidance in the choice of experiences for education. The assumption is also stated by Davies (1976) who clarifies the confusion arising between goals and objectives by saying:

"While an aim indicates the direction to take, a goal describes the actual destination itself. Rather than being visionary in character, it is the focus of activity. An aim is concerned with an ideal and as such can be broken down into a set of goals or events."

He continues:

"It is not that goals are in any way better than aims, they simply have a different role and purpose. They convert the question 'Why is that curriculum or subject being taught?' into the related question 'What destination do you have in mind for the learner as far as that curriculum or subject is concerned?' In other words, general objectives represent an attempt to operationalize the linking represented by an aim, to make it more practical and less ethereal. For instance, the aim 'to understand how to

write a research proposal for a problem in education' might be broken down into five general objectives or goals.

These are:

1. To acquire a concept of a research proposal, and its variants, as seen in historical, descriptive and experimental enquiries in education.
2. To appreciate the value of writing a research proposal as a basis for clarifying thought, analysing tasks, synthesizing procedures, and evaluating possible consequences.
3. To identify an educational problem, appropriate to the interests of the investigator, capable of investigation by the methods proposed.
4. To prepare an appropriate research proposal, according to generally acceptable standards in educational enquiry.
5. To critically appraise the proposal as a means of determining both its deficiencies and its strengths as a planning document."

(p.14)

Valette and Disick (1972) divide the aim of learning a foreign language into two sets of goals: instructional goals (which relate to the subject matter) and affective goals (which relate to learners/needs). These ultimate goals are divided further, into five sub-goals or specific goals, which are, similarly, cut off into small units called 'Performance Objectives'. Valette and Disick acknowledge that a goal, which is - as they define it - "a broad general objective of a cause" (p.10) should be broken down into specific objectives in order to be realized. This idea is widely accepted by some committees and writers in the field, including the Schools Council for England & Wales (1981) which declares that more specific aims are needed for each school, each year and each class. The Council puts forward fourteen specific aims which can be described as goals rather than aims. Although these goals are a great deal more precise and detailed than aims for which they are derived, they are still inferred descriptions, or hypotheses, of the things learners will be able to do at the conclusion of a learning sequence.

It is generally agreed that neither aims nor goals are themselves the effective agents in teaching; the most efficient tool is the objectives.



### 2.2.3. Objectives

If objective is used as an adjective, it might mean something which is 'having existence outside the mind' or something real and subjective. To say "objective writings" means that these writings (essays, reports, comments) are uninfluenced by personal thought or feeling, dealing with, almost, actual facts. The use of the term in noun can give the sense of object aimed at. In military, an "objective" means 'the point to which armed forces are moving to capture it'. Thus, while 'an objective' could mean 'an aim' or 'a purpose', it particularly means the near, concrete actions or objects which are applied to real-life situations.

In education, goals and objectives are, apparently, alike, yet objectives may mean the smallest units of a goal, or, in other words, the educational behaviours which bring that goal into the scope of feasibility.

"While goals express something of the strategy observed, specific objectives are tactical in nature. They are highly explicit and operational in form, as well as time-bound and quantifiable. Specific objects attempt to describe, in the clearest terms possible, exactly what a student thinks, acts or feels at the end of a learning experience. Just as goals describe destinations or events, so a specific objective describes an activity that learners do to indicate their mastery".

(Davies, 1976)

Efforts to discriminate between aims, goals and objectives are made by many writers. Barnes' distinction (1982) indicates that

"aims are more general: a school might include amongst its aims the fostering of self-reliance in pupils. Although this might be useful in providing a reminder to teachers about an overall goal, it does not commit anybody to doing anything in particular. Similarly there may be more general objectives within a subject-area. A science course might have the general objective of encouraging in pupils a critical habit of mind. Again, this is a useful reminder which does not commit anybody".

He goes on to say that

"the more general kinds of aims and objectives are potentially useful, but can prove to be pious statements that are never put into effect. For this reason, many



including the extremely specific ones called "behavioural objectives".

(p.23)

Barnes' advocacy of writing specific objectives led him to a more specific term connected with objectives which is called 'behavioural objectives'. This pedagogical revolution, or the statement of objectives of education in terms of behaviours, appeared forty years ago, when Tyler (1949) admitted that

"objectives stated in the form of topics or generalizations or other content elements do indicate the areas of content to be dealt with by the students but they are not satisfactory objectives since they do not specify what the students are expected to do with these elements".

He writes that:

"the most useful form for stating objectives is to express them in terms which identify both the kind of behaviour to be developed in the student and the content or area of life in which this behaviour is to operate".

(p.46)

This trend towards 'behaviourism' found some devotees, thereafter, who pressed for the association of behaviours with objectives of education. Wiseman and Pidgeon (1972) urge connecting behaviours, both inside and outside the classroom, with the objectives of a course. They argue that

"if sufficient thought is applied, the objectives of any course can usually be set down precisely and clearly in terms of the effects (or behaviours) that the course is intended to produce".

They go on:

"The word behaviour is used in this context to cover all activities that can be assessed or inferred. It covers not only the acquisition of knowledge and skills, but also the development of attitudes and interests. It is the expression of 'objectives' in terms of expected behavioural change that distinguishes them from the more general goals that might be ascribed to a course".

Hence, Wiseman and Pidgeon added to the conception of objectives and made it involve any activity performed by the learner as a result of his interaction with an educational situation. The patterns of

behaviour assessed as objectives should not be restricted to those activities belonging to the curriculum, but should include any which take place within the walls of the classroom or outside the school, those which are carried out in free time as well as the school time.

What is more important in their words is the inclusion of attitudes and interests of the participant as an objective of participation in that course.

Rowntree (1981) asked:

"How do objectives differ from aims?",

and answered:

"Both are statements of educational interest. Aims are sometimes expressed in terms of what the teacher is planning to do to the student: to stimulate, introduce, show, discuss, compare, etc. Objectives state specifically what the student will be able to do as a result.

Also, even when expressed in terms of intended student attainment, aims are a more general statement, e.g. the student will learn to 'understand', 'appreciate', 'realise the significance of', 'achieve a working knowledge', and so on. Objectives, however, should be more specific, as if in answer to the questions: But what do you mean by 'understand', 'appreciate' etc.? How might the student demonstrate his understanding, appreciation, knowledge, etc.?

Objectives need to be phrased in terms of verbs like 'explain', 'calculate', 'describe', 'list', 'analyse', and so on. We can say that aims and objectives lie towards (though not at) opposite ends of a general-particular or abstract-concrete continuum."

(p:43)

Firstly, Rowntree tries to separate the two terms 'aims' and 'objectives' by handing over their functions to the teaching-learning process. Where 'aims' might be used to map out the teacher role towards the students (instruction), 'objectives', similarly, play the same role for the students in identifying the activities required from them to accomplish the other half of the process (learning).

Sockett (1972) explains the interrelationship and the interference between aims and objectives by saying that:



"Objectives are often distinguished from aims: yet objectives cannot but be aimed at: to say that my objective is (x) is to indicate that it is (x) I am aiming at. Between the verb 'aim' and the noun 'objective' there is a formal link, and this is true of the verb 'aim' and the noun 'aim'. If the platoon commander is asked what objective he is aiming at, he may murmur confidentially "that farmhouse", though his objective is not "that farmhouse" simpliciter. It is "that farmhouse" modified, we might say, by intentional human action, i.e. its destruction or capture".

He classes, then, the objectives into three types:

- "(a) an achievement in the sense of a unique event, an occurrence: the capture of the farmhouse, the discovery of a drug, the finding of a ring, the winning of a race, the solution of a problem.
- (b) an achievement in the sense of an on-going state: the maintenance of a car, a state of physical fitness.
- (c) However, people do speak of their aims in life as happiness, power, wealth, health, or influence, which find concrete expression in (a) or (b). These may also be regarded as ideals, prospective views of a type of human excellence, or quality of life desired."

He continues:

"aims are thought to be loftier, more grandiose, higher level states of affairs, i.e. more like (c), whereas objectives are down-to-earth, practical and immediate, i.e. more like (a).

(p.33)

Furthermore, Sockett refers to four dimensions which represent the distinction between aims and objectives. These areas of differences are:

- "a) a distinction in terms of generality and specificity.
- b) a distinction in terms of the time span taken for their respective achievements: aims as long-term, objectives as short term.
- c) aims as carrying a greater likelihood of failure.
- d) aims as suggesting greater difficulty of execution.

(Socket, 1972:33)

On the other side of the matter, some writers make no noticeable distinction between aims, goals and objectives. They cast the term 'objectives' over the meanings of the three phrases. For instance, Broudy et al (1964) suggests several objectives for education in general. He indicates that educational objectives may be broad,

narrow, remote or proximate. They can be stated in terms of overt behaviour, character traits, developmental tasks, life styles, learning products, learning process, tendencies, dispositions, habits and school outcomes. However, he divides the objectives into two types: (1) goals at which school systems do in fact aim; (2) goals a school system ought to aim at.

Broudy's definition of objectives, as seen above, tends to parallel with what has been said formerly about aims of education, yet it deviates slightly closer to behaviourism. In other words, he presupposes life as a rich resource which can provide an appropriate atmosphere for creating the objectives of education and that anything that is regarded as a 'demand' or a 'want' can be an educational objective which should be finally achieved via behaviour.

The words 'means-ends' may relate to each other as aims and objectives do as may be seen in Davies (1976):

"There are, of course, any number of ways in which a destination can be reached. But as the reason for making the journey becomes clear, so the number of ways of reaching the destination decrease. Rarely are we faced with so simple a goal as getting from London to Birmingham, there is usually a reason for the journey. As this reason becomes clear, so the variety of routes and methods of transportation open to us are reduced. The means, as Michael Macdonald-Ross and Richard Peters point out, cannot be separated from the ends, nor the ends from the means. An objective is not just a finite goal. It is a means-end relationship, reflecting an underlying assumption or value structure. This is why we have to concern ourselves with the origin of objectives".

(p.29)

The following points can be concluded from the above example of the means-ends relationship:

1. The contingent connection between means and end. The end is 'getting to Birmingham' and the means in the 'transportation'.



2. The logically limiting connection between means and end.

The end is 'getting to Birmingham from London'. Certain means can be used to that end. 'Getting to Birmingham' can be by car, coach, train or by an aeroplane, but cannot be by ship because Birmingham is inland, or on bicycle because Birmingham is a place which is far from London. The choice, in this case, among the possible transportation is left to the agent to select a suitable one for his purpose of the visit.

3. The logical necessary connection between means and end.

'Getting to Birmingham', may not be the final end. The purpose of the visit could be 'doing some business'. It cannot be said, then, that 'getting to Birmingham' is a means to 'doing some business' but it is an end in itself and a precondition of the terminal end. Accordingly, it is necessary that in order to 'do this business' 'getting to Birmingham' is a pre-condition.

4. The logically constitutive connections between means and end. It may happen that when getting to Birmingham the agent changes his mind and will not do the business.

The way in which 'means-ends' are different from 'aims-objectives', is that the latter cannot be conceived as merely a means-ends construction. Education should have a profound cultural influence on the participants rather than just the mechanical relation which is implied by means-ends. The effect of education cannot be encompassed by the means-ends model, although means-ends plays a very important role in designing a syllabus.

It can be, then, deduced that the relationship between means-ends is logically necessary because the ends are identified not only

with the destination to be reached, but also with the course for reaching them. This relationship may correspond upon the relationship between aims, goals and objectives. On one hand, goals can be thought of as ends (or events desired) and specific objectives the means (or activities) by which they can be realized. On the other hand, aims can be thought of as ends, with goals the ends which precede the final ends. From the pure academic, educational purpose ends-means can not be equated with aims-objectives of the education.

Another term concerned with aims, goals and objectives, is 'outcomes' or 'outputs'. The outcomes of a process are the results or effects of the events carried out in a series of actions. When reference is made to education, its outcomes can be divided into two types. The first one is the subject-matter outcomes or as Valette and Disick (1972) called 'accountability': are students learning what the teacher professes to be teaching them? Accountability, however is broken up into two kinds, one of which is what Valette and Disick pointed out above or what Dennis Lawton called 'standards'. Parents want to know their children's attainment, and may hold teachers responsible for their children's education. The other kind of accountability is for the money spent on education. This money should achieve value in the products of education: doctors, engineers, teachers, chemists, physicians and the like.

The second type of outcomes is that regarding the modification of students' feelings, attitudes, conduct and behaviours as a result of the experience of education they had passed through. Outcomes, therefore, may involve the meaning of goals if they are represented by content and might mean aims if they are represented by operations such as: critical thinking, solving problems which are expected to show themselves beyond the period of instruction.

For all that, it can be said that when the term 'outcomes' arises, it, normally, denotes to the mediate products of instruction. They are goals rather than objectives because they specify the knowledge, skills or attitudes that are supposed to accrue as a result of instruction rather than a specification of the performance behaviours of those elements.

The third confusion which exists in this situation is the mixing up between the words: 'want', 'need' and 'ideals', and their relationship with aims, goals and objectives. The word 'need' refers to something felt to be necessary. 'Need' could mean such circumstances in which something is lacking.

The word 'want' might mean the absence of some necessary thing: "The house is in need of repair". However, it could mean the desire for something as necessary to life: "He is a man of few wants". Therefore, 'need' may necessarily mean 'a want', whereas 'want' cannot always give the meaning of 'need'. Thus what are required in curriculum design are the wants of individuals and the needs of the society.

On the other hand, a want could be a 'wish': "to be happy or to be sound", yet the wish is more loftier like an ideal. The ideal prescribes the human excellence without describing the excellent human. To put it more simply, the ideal is dealing with the concept rather than the content, with the thought rather than the procedures to achieve that thought. Whereas, a 'want', chiefly, deals with the rules which lead to the ideal. However, rules and principles certainly enter into the way in which ideals are realized, but a principle is no guide by itself to the direction in which one is going.



### 2.3. Importance of Objectives in Curriculum Planning

The term 'objectives' is used here to refer to the three types of targets: aims, goals and objectives. The discussion in the last section shows the importance of objectives in education. Their importance can be inferred from the roles they play in planning educational programmes. The main purpose for stating aims is to provide an orientation to the main emphasis of general education and the philosophy implied in the desires and hopes of society. Goals, on the other hand, are the scopes of each programme which contribute to achieve the aims, but they also define the broad outlines of the contextual subject. Although goals are important in orienting the general patterns of the subject activities, they are thought to be loftier and higher set. These goals should be, therefore, spelt out in smaller targets, however, in terms of the student's needs, teacher's desires and society's requirements. To make objectives work effectively, they should be analysed and classified in levels e.g. general, mediate, specific, so as to permit a teacher and his student to see and feel their targets. General objectives, for example reveal the collective statements of desirable acts, feelings, attitudes and knowledge over the period of the course. They are the targets expected to be achieved throughout the stage of school learning (secondary, intermediate or primary) which may last three or more years (Wheeler, 1967). Mediate objectives usually refer to the intermediate targets of one level or one scholastic year. They are useful to learners to make them aware of what they are required to cover at the end of the year or semester; similarly, they are useful to a teacher to identify his learners' progress in achieving the general targets of the stage. Specific objectives are the immediate objectives are formulated in terms of the instructional events inside



the classroom. They are the basis for selecting and grading learning experiences and content. Specific objectives are the guidelines which direct student's daily progress and provide the basis for formative assessment. The role of goals, general, mediate and specific objectives is reflected in various processes of curriculum planning and syllabus design.

#### 2.3.1. Objectives and selection of learning experiences and content

Due to the vast extent of knowledge in this age we next address such questions as: what content? Which learning experiences are suitable for students? or what activities are the most important? Objectives provide the criteria for what is to be selected from myriads of facts and content structures. Learning experiences are the vessels where items of content can be generated. Various levels of objectives can provide meaningful and comprehensive steps to formulate learning experiences since their effectiveness is characterised with reference to certain qualities such as to be purposeful, continuous, interactive and integrative. Those experiences which require relating specific facts to broad principles can also be set by means of objectives because the mechanisms of objectives allow synthesising knowledge as well as analysing it. Moreover, objectives should refer to life problems which help the designer select these experiences related to life situations rather than those which are recalled but soon forgotten. Different statements of objectives can guide learning experiences at different levels. If one of the goals in a biology course is 'to provide a student with adequate amount of knowledge about vegetables', then the content might be supplying a student with information about

terminology, facts, different or famous kinds of vegetables and the experience might be reading and memorizing from the textbook. Rather, if that goal is mapped out into general objectives and mediate objectives, and one of them is 'a student has to understand how different types of vegetables grow', then the experience here could be getting a student acquainted with different methods of sowing, planting and irrigating soil by showing him a film about this topic. If, on the other hand, a specific objective is stated such as 'student should discriminate between potatoes and carrots in growing' then the experience can be a detailed description of root plants (carrots) and rootless plants (potatoes), their specific qualities and features in growing.

If, on the other hand, the selection of affective experiences is approached by way of specific objectives, positive feelings and favourable attitudes are more likely to come into being. In most situations affective components tend to be governed by the ability to cope with the situation through skills and knowledge. Learning experiences encompassing feelings, interests or attitudes should be analysed in order to cope with situations involved (Taba, 1962).

### 2.3.2. Objectives and organisation of learning experiences and content

It was said earlier that there is more than one method for organising content and experiences, and any appreciation of a plan of organisation as good or bad depends on the purposes it serves and the facilities it offers for learners. Objectives play an important role in sequencing experiences and contextual items because the scheme of objectives is supposed to be a logical system. Continuity of experiences refers to the vertical reiteration of the subject matter

facts and knowledge. The hierarchy of objectives ties together experiences throughout the stage of learning, through attaining vertical reiteration (Phenix, 1964). Integration refers to the horizontal relationship of curriculum experiences with other subject experiences. In "sequence" concentration is on the cumulative progression, a building of what has gone before, but in "integration" a skill or idea should be applied to more extensive items. In other words, continuous learning experiences with sequential content should reappear with more extensive generalization, greater speed or refinement of performance. It should be taken into account that integration of knowledge is something that the learner achieves but which can be encouraged by the way in which content is organized. A subject, therefore, should offer those functions, problems or situations which call on knowledge found in a variety of other subjects and on those behaviours which are more generally determined (Orloskay, 1978:275) . To put it more simply, basic ideas and themes selected in content can be clarified and developed to form links with other ideas derived from different subject areas. Consequently, focusing on ideas rather than topics when organizing content would be more helpful in assigning the scope and ordering experiences. Earlier discussion in the selection of content and experiences showed that objectives are important in defining the basic themes and ideas of content from an educational viewpoint; ideas which are structurally derived, psychologically developed and socially appropriate. Objectives play a significant part in deciding the basic ideas and themes which are fully inter-related because they are derived from one source that is the aims of education. Objectives have another advantage from the communicative point of view. Objectives, therefore, work as mediators and means which facilitate



communication and negotiation among different subjects' designers (Saylor et al, 1954:249).

#### 2.3.3. Objectives and selecting aids and materials

By materials is meant the instructional aids necessary for instructional events to be implemented effectively, whether they appear in the form of printed words, objects or relia. The importance of designing and selecting only appropriate materials and aids for the teaching process springs from the fact that enormous sums of money have been spent for buying and installing audio-visual aids and equipment but very little benefit has been obtained. This is because most materials supplied are not relevant to students' interest (Orlosky, 1978). Objectives are the only targets which can combine and harmonize the interests of the students with the function and facilitations of instructional media.

#### 2.3.4. Objectives and teaching

Objectives identify the time needed for demonstrating a group of experiences or items so that the class period is suitably divided to cover a piece of learning. Objectives introduce the teacher to the resources available in the subject-matter, whether books or environmental facilities. Such resources are important to clarify meanings, motivate students and make a classroom alive and ready to encompass innovations. Objectives can recommend the techniques of teaching and strategies of practice but meet the needs of the students (Parratt, 1982). Assignments and homework are also guided by objectives in order to give feedback to what has been learned in the period. In presenting the lesson-material continuity is one of the characteristics which should be maintained. The sequence of



objectives provides a teacher with threads connecting the lesson procedures. The teacher's fluency depends on his mastery of the subject matter, yet empirical findings show that even if the teacher is not competent in his field, objectives can lead him to the safe way (Halt, 1983). Once objectives are specified aids and media can be identified to transmit a clear explanation. Objectives are the media of communication between the teacher and his student without which a student can hardly be brought up to the teacher's level of the subject logic (Macdonald, 1978). Students' different backgrounds in the subject matter and individual differences in characteristics of learning might call for objectives to help reaching the targets using appropriate paths and facilities (Barnes, 1982:238). In practice in the class, objectives help the selection of drills and exercises which realize the lesson targets and meet the student's interests.

#### 2.3.5. Objectives and evaluation

Since evaluation is part of curriculum planning assessment is part of syllabus design, and both goals and objectives play an important role in validating such processes. Goals are required for evaluation as it gives the sense of judgement which is shared by educators as well as non-educators. When objectives are stated clearly the teacher - or the assessor - can select the behavioural tasks he wishes to assess and write them as test targets. General and mediate objectives are usually appropriate for qualitative outcomes of a student such as: his general progress, his participation in subject matter activities, and the like. Specific objectives are appropriate for the quantitative outcomes of examinations, tests and quizzes. Objectives may keep the assessor straight as far as the

objectives are obvious and comprehensive. Since a student is assessed either according to a particular standard which has been agreed on (criterion referenced test) or according to a particular student or group of students (norm referenced test), objectives are the accurate instrument which define the standard or identify other student(s) level of performance. Validity of a test depends totally on objectives for a student is tested on what he has learned. Face-validity is evidenced by objectives because they are the effective communicative criteria. Students respond to the teacher (or tester) in terms of their perceptions of what he expects of them. These expectations are significant for 'face-validity' in order to reveal gaps in the test (Cohen and Manion, 1977). The relation between the test items and the curriculum objectives is over-stressed since the items of the test should be constructed so as to contain a representative sample of the course (Heaton, 1975). Even in subjective items objectives do not allow for several possible answers. Grading test items also require the existence of objectives as psychological principles dictate that a test should start with easier items and proceed to the difficult, so that the slow testee who does not complete the test would omit only the items in which in all probability he could not answer (Cronbach, 1964). In affective measurement objectives are also important to predetermine what is to be observed in 'observation', to emphasise values and culture that the student is interested in in 'interview' and to state multiple questions of sequential scales in 'questionnaire' (Barnes, 1982)<sup>(1)</sup>.

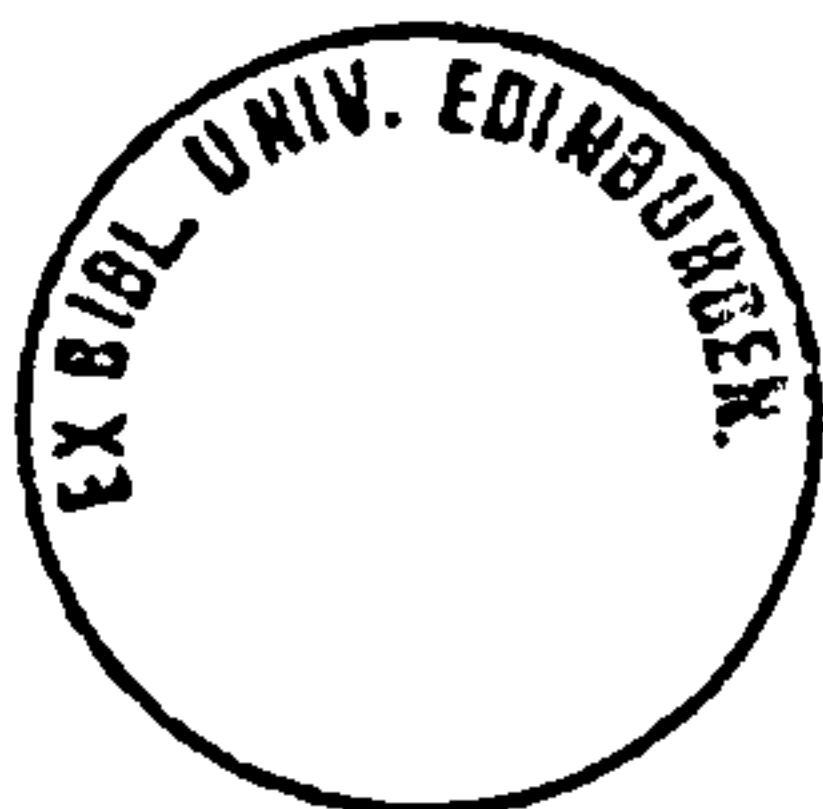
(1) More discussion about the crucial role of objectives in 'affective measurements', 'teacher's assessment', 'data interpretation' and 'learner's aptitude' is found in Appendix A

## 2.4. Guiding Principles for Stating Syllabus Objectives

It is suggested that aims of education are usually stated by the higher committees of education in the society because they represent the present and future desires of the society from education. Goals refer to a subject and usually say what an educational aim means with regard to the subject matter, yet they are too distant in terms of time and specification. They should be translated, then, into objectives in order to show student's progress year by year or assess the value of the course (Gagnè and Briggs, 1974).

### 2.4.1. Sources and constituents of objectives:

To analyse goals into their components of general, mediate and specific objectives, data about learners, society and subject matter have to be obtained. Drawing objectives from the three sources has to be in a general form at the beginning in the light of goals already stated. These tentative objectives should be spelled out according to the philosophy of education and a psychology of learning. Specific objectives, then, should be stated in precise terms of measurable learner behaviours (Saylor, 1954). Information about students might be drawn from two areas. The first one concerns the needs of the students for whom the curriculum is set. Data about the current status of the learners should be collected. Learners' age, sex, race, their characteristics of different phases of growth: infants, children, youth and adults are necessary (Munby, 1978). The collective data should then be characterized against some conception of an acceptable norm. The discrepancy between the two is referred to as a need. Information concerning students' interests, on the other hand, is required for the reason that students learn best those things in which they are vitally involved. If, for





instance, the students are more interested in 'space exploration', then different objectives regarding space can be generated (Tyler, 1949).

The second source of objectives is based on the nature of the subject matter. Rapid change of knowledge requires a new emphasis on those relevant and more important pieces of knowledge. The selection content of the subject matter should illustrate and clarify the representative ideas of it which are to be fused with the learners' attitudes and interests to produce objectives. The structures of the subject matter have to be revealed to allow a proper analysis of the nature of different components. Since the purpose of education is to transmit the culture in order to develop the society, then objectives should be derived from the nature of the environment as its third source. The choice of culture to be transmitted and the method of transmission are greatly influenced by contemporary life outside the school: family, peer group, community and mass communication media. Data can be gathered by surveying the society with reference to these aspects to determine the kinds of competencies needed by today's citizens. Due to the complexity of modern societies, it is suggested that society be studied in terms of health, family, recreation, vocation, civic affairs (Tyler, 1949).

The composition of objectives is a matter of debate, yet it is widely agreed (Taba, 1962; Orlosky, 1978) that they should contain:

1. facts, ideas and concepts which are learned by means of recalling or understanding. Facts which are used as tools for learning other concepts are more important because empirical findings showed that much factual information is difficult to retain after a considerable period of time.



2. critical thinking which should be developed through intellectual processes realized by various skills and behaviours, e.g. making inferences.
3. values and attitudes which are related to religion and morality. The statements of objectives of social values largely help to generalized cliches about individual personality such as: willingness to help others, work with others.
4. skills which are to be learned in command of fundamental processes, such worthy home membership, vocation and use of leisure. Changing people, as an aim of education, involves producing a wide range of behaviours in order to ensure a wide scope of learning. Objectives should range from the basic academic skills such as reading and writing up to skills in democratic and group living (Taba, 1962:211).

#### 2.4.2. Models of classifying objectives

Some well known models produced in the field of educational objectives are the works of Spencer, Cardinal and Bobbitt which have been discussed earlier (Table 1 previously displayed). The best known are the Mossman's Model and Bloom's. Mossman's taxonomy starts with domain 'A' which represents activities concerning inquiry and exploring, and ends with domain 'E' which comprises conformity activities. Between the two are 'B, C, D' domains which involve social, responsibility and expression activities respectively. Ten groups of activities are included in these domains ranging from questioning and creating, through co-operating and judging, up to recreating and controlling. Bloom's et al taxonomy (1973) is based

on a threefold scheme of objectives, viz. cognitive, affective and psychomotor, each of which is divided into three main classifications (association, conceptualization and identification) with seventeen major categories (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation: for the cognitive - receiving, responding, valuing, organisation, characterization: for the affective - and reflex movements, fundamental movements, perceptual abilities, physical abilities, skilled movements and non-discursive communication: for the psychomotor).

#### 2.4.3. Stating Objectives

The structure of objectives is built on a hierarchy enabling analysis into smaller manageable targets. At the top of the hierarchy, general objectives are found to be the expected outcomes expressed as patterns of behaviour which represent the desirable acts, feelings, attitudes and knowledge of the subjects (Rowntree, 1981). They can be stated in terms of topics, settings, skills, concepts or functions. They are formulated from the general aspirations of the society's representatives (parents) and specialists in the field (advisors and accountable persons). Mediate objectives are obtained from the general objectives but oriented and modified by the general needs (wants) of the learners. Each general objective can be broken down into more than one mediate objective on the basis of the wants and desires of the learners. Mediate objectives reflect the macro-outcomes of a course or a level out of many courses or levels which compose the syllabus. Specific objectives are derived from the mediate objectives to represent the micro-outcomes of that course or level. The statement of an objective is said to be specific when it communicates to another

person what he would have to do to observe the accomplishment of the purpose of the lesson. Since it makes an observation of another person possible, specific objectives are to be analysed horizontally and vertically. If the objectives are stated in terms of what a teacher is going to do such as: 'to revise the following contextual items .... to explain the meaning of evaluation .... to give examples of past and present evaluations', then they are horizontally analysed and called in this situation "instructional objectives". On the other hand, if the specific objectives are stated in terms of students' behaviours then they are vertically analysed and called behavioural objectives e.g. 'students ought to use pictogram chart ... students should identify different kinds of data needed for drawing the chart ... students should deduce data according to statistical method' (Rowntree, 1981).

Specific objectives are proposed to have three characteristics: clarity, comprehensiveness and continuity. Clarity refers to the descriptions of the kind of behaviour expected and the content. The content describes the behaviour intended whether to memorize, think about, act upon or produce a change. Such clarification helps in curriculum design, instruction and evaluation since as narrow behaviours are defined, limited outcomes are anticipated. Distinctions of behaviours for targets like: thinking, interpreting or appreciating, whether in instruction or assessment are defined by objectives as applicable to a wide variety of content. The statement should not only indicate knowing or remembering but also what is to be known or remembered.

Comprehensiveness refers to the broadness of dimensions which objectives have to encompass. They ought to embody all the expected outcomes and encourage manifold aspects of developmental ones. Continuity indicates the realization of the objectives over the period of the course as integrated targets.

Clarity of objectives is drawn from the verbs selected to state objectives. The statement of a verb should describe actions rather than mental states. The better this can be done, the more likely it is that specificity and clarity is obtained. Statements like 'to understand' or 'to appreciate' should not be rejected, but broken down into action verbs such as: to write, to define, to list, to recognize, to compare (Ross, 1973). Action verbs used in similar situations range over levels of difficulty which permit a sequence of learning. For instance, 'to write', 'to define' or 'to list' might occupy an initial place in instruction, while 'to recognize' or 'to compare' might sequentially come after them (Davies, 1976). Once the behaviour is fully defined, the conditions under which the behaviour is expected to occur can then be set (Ross, 1973). The behavioural objective which says 'students should describe the motions of amoeba' is insufficient because there is no indication as to what limitation is placed on the student nor any suggestions of how to recognise the accomplishment of the performance. An improvement to such an objective could be 'students should describe the motion of an amoeba by observing a number of amoebae under the microscope' (Rowntree, 1981). Such conditions might be dictated by the learning task, however they could be more or less challenging than students' capabilities. These conditions must appear when students are admitted to examinations. The environmental conditions may represent a second condition since the learning task may take place either at



school, classroom, laboratories or libraries, on paper or verbally. The standards of performance which are to be considered as an acceptable performance should be structured in the statement of the behavioural objectives. An objective should determine if a percentage, proportion and number of the problems or contexts which are being marked through by the students, are to be got right. The tolerances within which the learners would have to work is to be borne in mind. Finally the time allotted to the achievement of the objective might be considered as a standard. Time should be limited for understanding an experiment or writing an essay if it is wanted as a standard (Mager, 1962).

## 2.5. Language Syllabus Design

Many varieties of language syllabus designs are well known in the field of language planning, and they are characterised by different methods of teaching and learning. In understanding the variety of syllabuses, a useful dimension is Wilkins' two types of language syllabus: synthetic and analytic.

Wilkins (1976) defines the synthetic approach as the:

"one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step-by-step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up" (2)

While he defines the analytic approach as:

"are organised in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that necessary to meet these purposes"

(Wilkins - 1976:13).

The first definition assumes that learners 're-synthesize the language that has been broken down into a large number of smaller pieces with the aim of making his learning easier'. The content is specified as separate items of structure which the student learns as discrete items.

From the designer's point of view the 'synthetic' syllabus requires analysis of the language's structural and lexical content into inventories of grammar rules and words in order to develop or construct a syllabus. On the other hand, he needs to synthesise the language elements to carry out social functions and purposes within an analytic syllabus.

Traditional (structural) syllabuses are largely synthetic, e.g. 'semantico-grammatical', 'linguistic', 'phonological', 'lexical', and 'stylistic'. Communicative syllabuses are mainly 'analytic', e.g. 'situational' and 'procedural'. The syllabuses known as 'functional' or 'notional' are unusually rather more analytic than synthetic since

more stress is put on purposes for language use, and less stress on the structures and rules that underly language use. The term 'communicative syllabus' is often used to include designs such as those just described above where emphasis is always on purposeful language use, even though Widdowson (1979) criticises them for still being basically synthetic in what they present as a list of elements to be accumulated. Other designs such as 'procedural' or 'task-based' syllabuses may be more truly 'analytic' in that little attention is given in advance to determining the order in which structures will appear.

'SASE' is an example illustrating Widdowson's point. Although the author describes it as functional/notional in the Teacher's Book, yet it is certainly 'synthetic' to a large extent and might reasonably be described as structural.

The structural syllabus focuses on the rule-based nature of the language itself, highlighting its sub-systems of phonology, grammar, lexis and discourse as text. The learner in this syllabus is assessed in terms of his capability of being textually correct in use of the four skills. The criteria for selection and gradation of material in the structural syllabus follows the hierarchical approach of subdividing the language into: sentence, verb, noun preposition, etc. The syllabus requires a learner to synthesise the various aspects of the language system according to a developmental route from what is deemed simple in terms of structure and grammar towards what is complex. A Communicative/functional syllabus, on the other hand, would emphasis the purpose a learner may achieve through language in particular social situations and events. The content of the syllabus would be represented through socio-semantic categories which are linked to their linguistic exponents. A student following

this syllabus should learn to be socially appropriate in language use in addition to being accurate in using the code. The sequence of material in such a syllabus would be cyclic in nature moving from general categories of functions to more specific sets; and from general linguistic realisations of functions to more precise and narrowly appropriate exponents.

The synthetic syllabus may be criticised for being:

- 1 - mainly teacher centred in that every activity is initiated and terminated by the teacher, while the learners rate is rarely, if ever prominent.
- 2 - interested in teaching language as a finished product rather than as a developing process.
- 3 - unable to relate linguistic competence to social-use competence and knowledge of the conventions governing the use of the code which are developed within social and cultural groups (Hymes - 1972).

However, reasons for supporting it include:

- 1 - it presents learners with a rule-governed subject-matter which reduces the 'learning load' it demands.
- 2 - the analytical categories of the linguistic system can be incorporated in a plan for teaching the system which makes it easier for the learner to understand how the language works as a code-system.

The replacement of the synthetic syllabus by more analytic ones is justified in order to enable learners to use language to fulfill interpersonal and social purposes, virtually from the outset of their learning. Nevertheless it faces the following challenges:



- 1 - authentic material used in such a syllabus could be either too easy or too difficult for the learner to communicate through, or outwith their interests.
- 2 - a native-speaker's communicative competence is a virtually impossible target for a learner to achieve.
- 3 - if the teachers are not native it is very difficult to attain a truly Communicative approach because non-native teachers are rarely sufficiently competent in the social use of the language.

Given that, it can be argued that both syllabuses have suited their own era. The synthetic syllabuses appeared at a time when world-wide communication and information exchange was much less extensive than it is today. The appearance of the analytical syllabus comes as an outcome of studies in applied linguistics and sociolinguistics concerning the nature of the language pedagogy and how it works in social situations in human life (Candlin - 1984).

## 2.6. Language Teacher Education

There is always an association between the education of language teachers and the purposes of learning that language in schools. This association calls upon other correspondences between the student education, in one hand, and the teacher education on the other. If the objectives and the circumstances of teaching the foreign language are not realized by the teacher education then teachers would be inefficient to teach the language (Thomas, 1987:33). Language teacher education refers to the training of teachers who are going to teach a foreign language in schools or undergraduate institutes. Three aspects can be identified in the process of training: namely the system of education, the type of courses given to the trainees and the tutorial features embedded in the instruction. The new role of the teacher is seen not only as a transmitter of knowledge but also as an investigator and motivator. His message in the field of language is more effective in bringing about changes in attitudes, habits and skills in his students. Teacher training is part of the school curriculum, even though Strevens says that

"the general effectiveness of language learning and teaching in any given country is heavily dependent on the nature and quality of the training which teachers undergo before entering their professions'.

(1977:21)

The training of teachers is dependent on the language education in schools in terms of objectives, qualities of learners, conditions of schools and the nature of the education organisation. Such factors influence construction of the trainees' courses since they cannot overlook the targets the school students are aiming at. Teacher education also cannot ignore learners' characteristics and the conditions surrounding instruction at schools as they affect the methodology of learning and class management.

Training FL teachers incorporates the selection of suitable applicants, the construction of courses and teaching practice. Applicants should be selected carefully according to certain personal qualities, some of them innate while others are acquired. The applicant should be chosen for his intelligence and encouraging personality as far as teaching is not only regarded as a craft but also an art. Sufficient command of FL is an indicator of his education in the FL and interest in it. An adequate level of education should be possessed by the applicant as a teacher and educator (Strevens, 1977).

Courses designed for FL teachers are widely said to contain four areas: the language substance, the target culture, methodology and class management. The substance of the target language is divided into linguistic aspects, which supply the trainees with linguistic competence, and skills, or language improvement, which facilitate his way to performance. With reference to the linguistic aspects an FL trainee should have command of the structural and sound patterns. He should be aware of the historical as well as the current developments of the language grammar usage and phonology. Lexicography is another important area the teacher's attention should be drawn to. In addition to the features of the language itself the FL teacher should be introduced to some linguistic theories:

"Descriptive linguistics help them see clearly the features of the language; behaviouristic psychological theory helps them understand different language habits; psycholinguistics show them the correlation between linguistic behaviour and psychological processes of thought to underlie that behaviour; sociolinguistic gives them a clear picture of how language functions in a social context; applied linguistics helps them solve problems and answer questions according to the principles or knowledge derived from the scientific study of the structure of language".

(Yu-Shend, Newsletter No. 96, 1987:31)

Language skills or improvement is an area which has received great attention since the changes of language theory and practice from the 1970s onward. Communication becomes the ultimate aim of teaching and learning which brings the abilities of listening, speaking reading and writing up to the pedagogy of the language. The Modern Language Association in America proposes that the minimal level which should be reached by the language teacher is:

1 - in listening:

'The ability to get the sense of what an educated native says when he is enunciating carefully and speaking simply on a general subject';

2 - in speaking:

'The ability to talk on prepared topics (e.g. for classroom situations), without obvious faltering and to use the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country, speaking with a pronunciation readily understandable to a native.

3 - in reading:

'The ability to grasp directly the meaning of simple, non-technical prose, except for occasional words';

4 - and in writing:

'The ability to write correctly sentences or paragraphs such as would be developed orally for classroom situations, and the ability to write a short, simple letter'.

(Rivers, 1968:381-2, PMLA)

Teachers are encouraged to attain higher levels of performance since the levels mentioned above are minimal. In listening, for example, he should be encouraged to listen and understand lectures, news broadcasts, plays and movies; in speaking: to express his thoughts and ideas in FL without making mistakes; in reading: to read prose, poetry and criticism with care; and in writing: to write on a variety of subjects in a good style (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973).

The target culture is important for FL teachers since it is difficult to

'understand the nature of either language or language learning unless we examine carefully the relation of language to the total way of life of the group'

(Brooks, 1964:84)



The FL teacher, therefore, should be aware of the geography, history, social customs and behaviours, and civilization of the foreign people. He has to contrast his own culture and literary masterpieces with the target counterparts and find out the way both cultures resemble and the way they differ.

Methodology courses are often of two types: general professional training as an educator and special professional training as an FL teacher. The components of the general professional training involve knowledge about education: general aims of education, principles of learning, educational psychology and the study of child development. It also involves the organisation of education in the native country and the kinds of school that exist. The special training course of methodology constitutes the knowledge of effective methods and techniques of language teaching, and how to apply such knowledge to classroom situations taking the factors affecting the application into consideration.

Special training courses equip teachers with techniques necessary to adapt the textbook's material in order to satisfy learners' needs, in addition to the ability to produce and use the teaching aids effectively. It is reported from a learner:

"When we look back on our schooling, we remember teachers rather than courses - we remember their manner and methods, their enthusiasm and intellectual excitement, and their capacity to arouse our delight in, or our curiosity about, the subject taught".

(Hook - in Burt et al, 1977)

The last type of course the FL teacher undergoes in his training is class management. An FL teacher should be aware of the physical aspects of the classroom and the school building as a whole. Characteristics of learners are important for him to identify their drives, abilities, interests and problems which promote or handicap their approach to learning. He should profit from what he learns -

in general professional courses - about the psychology of the target learners and their attendant conditions. The schools' discipline, criteria of learners' distribution into classes, and extra curricular activities should be made known to teachers since the better this can be manifested the more likely it is that teacher will manage in the instructional situation.

Teaching practice is the part where all theories of the subject matter and methodology can be put into action. Its role is to integrate these theories and link them with the practical requirements of the classroom. Many student teachers go through their course and emerge from it with little conception of how to apply language patterns and method to situations confronting them. Teaching practice takes the shape of either micro- or macro-teaching. Nevertheless, some systems introduce both types to their trainees (Parish and Brown, ELT 1988). An observation period usually precedes the actual teaching which takes a week or two. Preliminary visits of observation enable the student teacher to be in touch directly with the classroom teacher in order to exploit the real current conditions and resources available or potentially available at the school. They also enable him to know the variety of activities and duties required from him whether curricular or extra-curricular. A period of observation in teaching practice is essential for the student teacher to:

- 1 - perceive teaching as a skill developed through doing;
- 2 - to describe what happens in the classroom and jot it;
- 3 - to recognize that every classroom presents a unique combination of circumstances despite one syllabus; and

4 - to establish criteria for critical evaluation of teaching/ learning so that they help in the awareness of the divergent features of the classroom performance

(Abu-Taleb, 1982)

Observation comprises actual lessons taught by the class teachers or supervisors and observation of classes taught by a fellow student teacher. During observation the student teacher is asked to jot, note and analyse the lesson(s) he observes according to knowledge and information he grasped in his training. Observation should not be limited to class but should also embody the school's discipline, distribution of students and the organisations existing in the school.

After the period of observation the student teacher is allowed by the trainer to practice teaching but under supervision either by the trainer or by the class teacher. Detailed and careful preparation is desirable in this phase to give the student teacher the necessary confidence in front of the class and to clarify the criteria of lesson evaluation and assessment. The student teacher has to benefit from what he has studied in language and its methodology in the practice of teaching.

## 2.7. Review of studies concerning English programmes in Saudi Arabia

Ten studies investigating different aspects of English programme in Saudi Arabian schools have been conducted by Saudi PhD researchers in the United States. Each study probes a part or branch of the English syllabus. They are summarised below according to the dates of occurrence.

### 2.7.1.

The first study is conducted by: Mulla, Mohammad Amin (1979) which investigates the attitude, motivation, anxiety, intolerance of ambiguity and other biological variables as predictors of achievement in English as a foreign language by high (secondary) school science major seniors in Saudi Arabia. He selected eighty-one third grade secondary students as a sample from Makkah and used predictor and achievement measures such as: aptitude and attitude tests, motivation, personality traits, a general information questionnaire and survey of study habits. The achievement test used five measures to assess the student's proficiency in English: dictation, cloze, reading, structure and teacher grades of the term. The researcher also adapted some other tests as aptitude and attitude tests from Carroll and Gardner and Lambert (1972). The study in general manipulates the factors affecting learning English in Saudi secondary schools. It concluded that student's achievement can be measured by dictation test only, a student's perception of his progress in EFL is an important factor for feedback and consequently for mastery, attitudes, aptitudes, motivation, personality traits and anxiety are all related to EFL achievement. The study also found a correlation between age and urbanity with the EFL achievement.

### 2.7.2.



A study for finding out 'the perception of the English language teachers towards methods of teaching English in Saudi Arabian schools', was conducted in 1981 by Ali AL-Kamookh. The researcher selected one hundred forty-four English teachers from two Educational zones - Damman and AL-Hasa - of the Eastern Province as the study sample. He applied a questionnaire which consisted of forty-five statements dealing with language teaching and learning, techniques and methods, behaviours and innovations. The study concludes that:

1. the teacher prefers dealing with the audio-lingual method followed by the direct method and finally by grammar translation method.
2. English is an important subject in the school curriculum.
3. there was a lack of laboratories, workshops, journals and other publishing concerning English language.

(AL-Kamookh, 1981)

### 2.7.3.

Another study was led by Radhi Surur (1981) who surveyed the attitudes of students, teachers and administrators towards English language in Saudi Arabian schools. The tool used to collect data was a questionnaire. The representative sample was six hundred and fifty-six students, seventy-three teachers, and thirty-six administrators from two educational zones. The study showed that:

1. there is no satisfaction with the current English curriculum including: text-books, and the classroom activities.
2. learning English has to be without cultural input.
3. there should be a more relaxed atmosphere in teaching and learning the language.
4. a desire for a change in the English curriculum.

(Surur, 1981)

#### 2.7.4.

A fourth investigation about instructional supervision of English was approached by Musa AL-Habeeb (1981). The questionnaire was the only tool used for gathering the information which clarified several points amongst which are:

1. many English supervisors visit schools only twice a year, because they are responsible for a large number of teachers.
2. post visit conferences are rarely held.
3. eighty percent of the supervisors indicate that their suggestions were useful to teachers while the same percentage of teachers do not agree on that.
4. supervisors are not consulted when English programmes are designed.
5. no workshop meetings were held for teachers and supervisors.
6. students have no desire to learn English.
7. intermediate stage students as well as secondary stage students cannot communicate in English efficiently.

(Al-Habeeb, 1981)

#### 2.7.5.

Another study pertaining to teacher-training programmes at the Faculty of Education in Makkah was by Saggaf, Ahmed (1981) to investigate the adequacy and validity of courses in the English Department, its methods and techniques. The researcher collected materials and official documents concerning teaching and learning English in Saudi Arabia. He used two questionnaires; the first one was distributed to a randomly selected group of teachers who graduated from the Department and who were teaching English in intermediate and secondary schools. The second questionnaire was

administered to the students in the Department and recently graduated teachers of English from the Department. The samples were (72) teachers and (73) students. The aspects of the questionnaires are related to the present status and the content of English programme, the methods used for teaching the programme, the utilization of resources and activities in the Department and the main difficulties and problems encountered teaching/learning in the Department. The major outcome of the study was that the Department of English needed improvement. The defects and weaknesses - as reported by the researcher - were attributed to several causes, some of which are quoted below:

1. Student deficiencies in Teaching English as a second language before college entry.
  2. A curriculum which does not meet the students' needs and interests.
  3. Lack of effective teachers.
  4. Insufficient involvement of the students and teachers of English as a second language in planning English."
- (p.143)

The researcher recommended that students in the Department should be given information about the design of language syllabus. They should be acquainted with the difficulties that Arab learners encounter in learning English. He also recommended that students should be trained in new methods and techniques of teaching English as a foreign language.

#### 2.7.6.

A sixth PhD study to find out the adequacy of Saudi students' preparation in English was conducted by Abdul Aziz AL-Twaijri. The only method used in the investigation was a questionnaire. The study indicated that:

1. the materials used in teaching English in Saudi Arabian schools lack clarity and coherence and were not designed specifically for the Saudi environment and culture.

2. the focus was largely placed on teaching grammatical rules.
3. the method used in teaching English failed to motivate the students.
4. the teaching process does not give the students a feeling of success or confidence in what they are learning.
5. the majority of students were interested in learning English and many of them tried hard to learn it.
6. the students did not have adequate opportunities or encouragement to practise the language, especially in speaking.
7. many students rated themselves very poor to poor in the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

(AL-Twajri, 1982)

#### 2.7.7

A seventh study was intended by Sulaiman AL-Muarik to analyse and compare the errors made by intermediate and secondary third grade students, and the learning strategies they employed in two schools in Riyadh. The researcher used two tests to collect data. The first test was a translation consisting of thirty Arabic sentences designed to cover the following grammatical points:

- |                      |                |
|----------------------|----------------|
| 1 - Wh questions     | (12) sentences |
| 2 - Yes/No questions | (5) sentences  |
| 3 - Negative         | (8) sentences  |
| 4 - Passives         | (5) sentences  |

The second test was composition consisting of (50) words on three different topics of narrative and descriptive natures. The points issued by the study were:

1. there were some errors that come about as a result of inadequate teaching/learning situations.



2. the motivation and attitudes of Saudi Arabian students toward English learning need to be studied and recognised as an essential part of the learning process.

(AL-Muarik, 1982)

#### 2.7.8.

AL-Shammary (1982) conducted another study concerning the development of motivation to learn English as a foreign language across several age groups, using the students themselves as the source of the data. The study attempted to clarify the relationship between motivation and attitudes and the role each of them plays in learning English. For estimating the subject's motivation to learn English as a foreign language the study administered a questionnaire of 44 items attributed to four components of motivation that are 'reasons for learning English, the desire to learn English, the motivational intensity to learn English, and the attitudes towards learning English'. Items of the questionnaire represent reasons which a Saudi student may have for learning English. The sample of the study was 600 students selected from the six grades of intermediate and secondary stages. The results of the study indicate that the overall motivation of the Saudi students to learn English is moderately high in general. It is highest at the first grade intermediate but declines thereafter at the second grade where it reaches its lowest level. Nevertheless, there is an upward increase in motivation by the third grade intermediate and first grade secondary but it again declines at the second grade secondary. One of the

implications of the study is the positive role of age and level of education in the development of motivation to learn English from the first grade intermediate to the first grade secondary.

#### 2.7.9.

In one of the diagnostic studies concerning teaching English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia, AL-Ahaydib, Mohammad (1986) conducted research to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the English syllabuses of the intermediate and the secondary stages through the perception of supervisors, teachers and the third grade intermediate and secondary students. The study also surveyed the interests, needs and complaints of students, teachers and supervisors. The instrument used by the study was a questionnaire. Three types of questionnaire were developed: one for English teachers, one for English supervisors and the third one for students of the third grade intermediate and secondary. The contents of the questionnaire were: teacher-preparation, English curriculum, English instruction, students' characteristics, aids and media of teaching, teaching atmosphere and improving English language situation. A total number of 836 students, 51 teachers and 5 supervisors formed the population sample. The researcher concluded that the teacher's rating of their preparation was higher than the supervisors' and students' rating. He also concluded that there is a weakness in displaying the target culture adequately in the English syllabus. Concerning instruction and curriculum implementation the study showed weaknesses of students' participation in activities because of the dominant role played by the teacher. The study found that students' motivation to learn English was low which was explained as a lack of desire to learn English. Two other conclusions stated by the study,

first: teachers did not explain the objectives of teaching activities before they started teaching; second: there was an emphasis on teaching grammar explicitly coupled with translation of rules into Arabic. The researcher has put twenty-one recommendations involved in syllabus improvement, teacher's training improvements, supervisor development and availability of teaching aids.

#### 2.7.10.

The tenth attempt concerning English curriculum investigation was by Alam, Mohammad (1986) to investigate the effects of three experimental treatments upon the quality and quantity of English as spoken by Saudi Arabian students. The three experimental treatments were: a repetition and pattern drill intervention, a motivation and a combined repetition and pattern drills and motivation intervention. The study highlights the oral skills as essential media for communication which foster the acquisition of other skills and abilities (Byrne, 1982). The study was experimental using forty students and comprised six lessons covering, mostly grammar-points and some functions. An oral interview was led by the researcher into four different phases of the study which presented changes on each dependent variable of the three stated above. The results of the study showed that the use of repetition and pattern drills, motivation (in the form of token systems and praise) and a combined repetition drills and motivation can increase general oral proficiency in English and specifically improve comprehension, accent, grammar, vocabulary and fluency'. It also demonstrated that combined repetition and pattern drills and motivation can be more effective than separating them. The study recommended the use of oral English in real situations.

Implications:

Some implications can be drawn from the above summarised researches:

- 1 - All studies discussed the methodology of the English language programme: supervision, teacher training, methods of teaching, methods of learning, attitudes and motivation of students towards English, but there was little attempt made to evaluate the current English syllabus at schools. This is in spite of the recommendations and suggestions stated by all studies that the curriculum of English should be evaluated.
- 2 - The studies attempted to identify defects and problems typically pronounced by any researcher in the field and so there was nothing novel in it except the statistical figures which could be different. There was no single attempt to construct concrete methods or offer an alternative technique supported by argumental justification.
- 3 - No interpretation of results based on logic and compromise. Each study seems to be presupposing defects (lack of motivation, inadequacy of teacher and supervisor preparation, unsatisfactory contextual material) and tries to convince the reader of the real existence of the problem(s) by providing figures of statistics and abstract arguable recommendations.
- 4 - The studies focused on quantitative and experimental data rather than qualitative information. They depended on limited samples but generalised the results without consideration to urbanity, multi-lingualisms and other demographic features which characterize population in general and students in particular in Saudi Arabia. It is



widely accepted (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983; Yalden, 1983; Dubin and Olshtain, 1986) that students' needs and shortcomings is a matter of compromising in order to meet other societal needs and deficiencies.

5 - 'Questionnaire' was, largely, the only instrument used by these studies. Some used 'interview' as an oral test or only for limited purposes. Neither observation of what was going on inside the class situation, nor recording of live lessons were carried out.

6 - Some of the conclusions drawn by the studies were conflicting e.g. 'students have no desire to learn English' versus 'the majority of students were interested in learning English', 'the motivation is generally moderately high', 'the motivation of Saudi students to learn English is low'.

Nevertheless, it can be said that these studies gave evidence of the unsuitability of the English curriculum running in the Saudi schools with its components and sub-components as: methods, material, teacher proficiency, learner's motivation and supervisor's quality.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **DATA INVESTIGATION**

## Introductory

Since there has been no investigation carried out in the past to survey the needs and desires of students and Saudi society, this study considers such a work a prerequisite for constructing an English syllabus especially that the doctoral studies concerning English teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia mentioned in Chapter Two were all interested in the methods of teaching and not in the construction of material. Carrying out such a study is essential to find out what needs and interests Saudi students have, what are their characteristics, what situations are offered in the classroom for instruction and what types of methodology are used to operationalize the syllabus. The study investigates the actual needs of students and the real wishes and desires of teachers, supervisors and parents. The empirical investigation had to be carried out early in the study in order that the data from it should be available for the main work of curriculum design; this must excuse the very limited piloting the study undertakes.

The empirical study in this Chapter is divided into three processes. The first process is the collection of data which embraces a justification for students' needs in syllabus design, the development of the methods and instruments for collecting the data, the academic trip to Saudi Arabia and finally administrating the instruments. The second process describes the analysis of the new material and outlines the results. The final process is the discussion and interpretation of the results and outcomes of the investigation.

### 3.1. Data Collection

#### 3.1.1. Arguments for and against students needs

The basic needs and drives of all humans are the same but each society expresses its interaction with its own environment in several ways depending on the resources available (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973). Corder's warning (1977) on the other hand, should be taken for granted as he stated that:

"Ideally, each learner requires a personalised syllabus of his own. But we teach groups, not individuals"

(p.322)

Where some of the writers see the necessity of students' needs in curriculum planning others do not. Yalden (1983) believes that it is difficult to determine what the communicative needs of the students are and, therefore, she suggests that lists of grammar and vocabulary can be the basis for the design of the content. Her justification is that if learners gain command of the linguistic features, communication follows. Other writers advise caution when students' needs are used as criteria for material selection, amongst them Dubin and Olshtain (1986) who agree with Corder's (1973) declaration that needs should reflect the majority of the learning population rather than actual individual. They go further to say that such needs can be problematic when they are set for groups in advance of their arrival. In contrast, Wilkins (1976) argues that the assessment of needs in language syllabus construction is important for stating specific objectives and defining the macro parameters of content selection and gradation. This conception is admired by Munby (1978) who designed, accordingly, his 'profile of communicative needs' to specify the micro needs and interests of learners. The project was praised by some writers in the field



(Murcia, 1984), but criticised by others (Yalden, 1983). Schultz and Darwing (1981) (in Mackay and Palmer, 1981) demonstrated the situation by saying that:

"the systematic assessment of learner needs and expectations is going to be a very complicated and difficult enterprise indeed, at least if the results are to be of sufficiently high quality to afford any genuine benefit to language teachers and students".

(p.31)

On this basis, it can be said that the middle line between the two extremes is desirable. The students' needs are required to predict specific objectives and contextual items but only as a large class of needs, macro requirements and general interests. Van Ek (1976) has adopted the moderate position and classified his sample's needs in "The Threshold Level" into empirical, logical divisions, each of which represents a considerable number of the student population. The collection of data in this paper follows this conviction as it manifests the framework of syllabus construction.

### 3.1.2. The development of methods and tools

Five methods and tools are used for collecting the data. They are: questionnaire, interview, observation, tape-recording and materials collection. The variety of tools are intended to provide comprehensive perspectives and views about the needs of students, teachers, supervisors and parents.

#### 3.1.2.1. Questionnaire

They are the most crucial and workable tools because they avoid the emphasis on interpreting answers, in addition to the confidence they give to the respondents themselves during the answer. Two types of items are employed in the questionnaires, namely:

- a) items which evoke the respondents' impression and feeling about the curriculum presently taught at schools in order to reveal its defects and other shortcomings;

- b) items that promote more propositions and directives for developing an alternative syllabus.

Four questionnaires are administered to five groups of people: students, teachers of English, supervisors of English, including the experts in the Ministry of Education, and lastly, parents.

3.1.2.1.1. Student's Questionnaire (see Appendix B 1):

It is the most valuable instrument in this process as it reflects the students' desires and attitudes towards English and the syllabus of English. It is put in fourteen pages containing fourteen items. The first item requires clear-cut answers with 'Yes' or 'No' to six questions set to show the students' readiness to learn and cope in English. The item is introductory rather than to be related to specific syllabuses. The first question in this item identifies the student's experience in English before it is introduced to him as an official subject in this stage since the background in English influences its learning afterwards (see 'Learner's Factors' - next Chapter). The second question inquires about the student's own attitude to English and whether it is considered from his view necessary for his future job. The third question inquires about the role of English from the student's view-point, whether it is worth learning. Due to the fact that those who speak more than one language (bilingual or multilingual) are supposed to be more capable and ready to learn a third language the fourth question asks if the student speaks another language in addition to Arabic (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973:21). The fifth query identifies how helpful the parent can be to his son in mastering the language, yet this does not entail that all qualified parents are ready to help. The last

question in the same cluster expresses the student's attitude approaching English as it is a prominent factor in learning and motivation.

The second item in the questionnaire is connected with the contemporary syllabus of English in intermediate stage. It seeks the students' reactions towards what they learn and acquire. There are eight statements in the item requiring ticking on a scale out of five which is the most appropriate to the student's view. The scale is ranked as: 'always', 'often', 'sometimes', 'seldom' and 'never'. Each statement identifies one aspect of contextual material of the syllabus. The first statement deals with the material and the syllabus' substance, the second statement elaborates the methods of teaching, while the third statement points to the medium of instruction. The fourth statement counts the objectives of the immediate course whereas activities and practice are involved in the fifth statement. The last three statements address the listening and speaking skills, whether the students are competent in handling them in English (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986). Earlier hypotheses suggest that intermediate stage students do not have a clear purpose for learning English in their minds therefore item three is stated to verify this hypothesis. Three premises in the item are offered where the student is required to tick only one scale for each purpose out of five; viz. 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'undecided', 'disagree', 'strongly disagree'. From item four onwards all inquiries and statements investigate student intentions and needs for developing a new syllabus. They require gaps to be filled by students' interests and desires. Item four opens by offering a number of targets for learning English in Saudi Arabian Schools. The respondents are required to tick the box which is most useful, beneficial or relevant



to them. These targets are then expanded into a number of general objectives in item five where the respondents are asked to rank the answers and number them with (1) for the most important or suitable answer, (2) for the next prominent and relevant, and the like. Objectives embedded in the item refer to such topics as tourism, professions and careers, academic studies, trading and pilgrimage.

Items and statements from six onward handle the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, and the type of contexts proposed in the new project. Item six offers two electives where the respondents choose either to prefer learning the two skills listening and speaking or listening only. Two sections are included in item seven; both deal with student's preference in relation to reading and writing. No one doubts that acquiring language depends on mastering the four skills, yet the controversial situation remains at the start-point. Most writers agree that better learning of languages results if priority is given to listening and speaking especially for younger learners (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973:2). On this basis item eight gives three choices to respondents: whether they would like to focus on listening and speaking, reading and writing or to give equal emphasis to the four skills concurrently. Material for listening, speaking, reading and writing is subsequently displayed in items nine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen and fourteen. A variety of formulae are set to assess the student's responses. Sometimes the student is asked to select from many items those which meet his demands or fulfil his needs as in item ten, eleven, thirteen and fourteen. Other times he is required to order the statements given to him according to their importance or suitability. Each item is followed by five free-response answers to offer more freedom to students to describe his own preferred material. All responses are



then characterized with reference to the independent variables written in terms of gaps to be filled by the respondents. The gaps at the beginning of the questionnaire regard the ages of the students, locations of the schools, grades of intermediate stage the respondent is at, and lastly the hobby(ies) the respondent mostly enjoy(s).

#### 3.1.2.1.2. Teachers' Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to gather a wide variety of teachers' opinions about certain aspects of teaching and learning English in intermediate stage.

Different types of items are used in the questionnaire ranging from structured-response of ticking or multiple choice, through Yes/No questions, up to free-response questions at the end. It consists of fourteen pages with nine separate sections.

The first item is divided into two sections; the first one relates to the length of experience the teacher has and the other shows the grade(s) the teacher is (or was) teaching since this indicates the teacher's background and previous knowledge of the three courses. The second item marks out the qualifications of the teacher. The first two items are introductory to infer information about the teacher's proficiency and competency. Item three involves several inquiries. The first one expresses the teacher's satisfaction of his career. The second question inquires about the statement of any clear defined objectives of the course, while the third one inquires if the teacher creates his own objectives when he prepares the lesson (Stevens, 1977:26). The fourth question identifies the teacher's own opinions and suggestions which contribute to the development of the syllabus. The last query states the teacher's view of the feasibility and efficiency of the current

syllabus to fulfil the needs of both students and society.

Discussion concerning the present syllabus begins in item four where the teacher is required to tick one out of five of: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree. The content and methods of the syllabus are inherent in the first and second statements of the item; the third statement investigates the tactics adopted by the teacher when preparing a lesson. The fourth statement deals with the introduction of grammar at the first grade.

Activities and their effective techniques in teaching English are described in statements five and six whereas the final statement highlights the role of innovation as an external factor influencing the psychological and educational environment of the classroom instruction (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986:30-31). Item five exhibits two groups of topics where one only is to be selected by the teacher. He is required to justify his selection in Section B. The topics of the first group are written in a situational/notional way whereas the other group are topics picked from the current first grade student's textbook. The question aims at finding out whether some lesson-titles in the current text-book are more liked if they are converted into more functional form (Brumfit, 1984:93). A survey for a new syllabus is discussed in the sixth item where eleven topics and many sub-topics of the language communication are displayed for the respondents to select and circle the grade which it is best introduced in. Seven spaces are given to the respondent for his own statements of topics.

The next item addresses some issues and concepts pertaining to the teaching process and its integrated components such as: skills, approach and supervision. The respondent is required to tick one out of five ordered as follows: 'to a very great extent', 'to a great

extent', 'to some extent', 'to little extent', 'not at all'. The first statement deals with the teacher's fluency in English as it contributes to the learners' communicative competence. The second statement elaborates the teacher's judgement on giving prominence to listening and speaking rather than reading and writing. The third statement is constructed with reference to the coherence and cohesion among the three intermediate English syllabuses. The fourth statement casts light on the role of supervision in guiding teaching towards the best. Where it has been hypothesised that SASE is still dominated by the structural approach statement five investigates the teacher's opinion about this fact. The sixth seeks the teacher's own perspective towards his career. Testing the oral skills (speaking and listening) is neglected at SASE and therefore the final statement attempts to elicit the approval or disapproval of the teacher on this point. Learning English in the intermediate stage should be defined and identified in terms of the four main skills. However, the four skills are concurrently learned at each stage of learning yet there might be a concentration on one or two skills rather than the others in a particular phase of learning. Item eight section (A) is intended to clarify the point and give the respondent a choice for this emphasis throughout the three grades. Section (B) of the item tackles the techniques of teaching and lesson presentation by expressing three techniques and methods where the respondent is asked to state the grade of learning where he thinks that emphasis should be put on some rather than the others. The last item in this group presents a number of pedagogical aspects needing elaborating from the teacher. The respondent, in other words, is required to accumulate his experience and compare his knowledge and skill to speculate on the objectives, aims, principles of design and motivational factors



which he has already used in SASE or ought to recommend for a new attempt to develop an English syllabus (Abbot and Wingard, 1981:265).

#### 3.1.2.1.3. Supervisor's Questionnaire

The questionnaire is administered to investigate the perspectives of English supervisors towards the prospective programme of English. It is also designed to find out the feelings of the supervisors with regard to their evaluation of the current English syllabus SASE. Five items are administered using a wide variety of responses e.g. ticking the suitable statement, sentence-completion, yes/no questions, circling the relevant statement and free response answers. The questionnaire is written in twelve pages with nine introductory queries to lead up to the thematic discussion. The questionnaire begins with Yes/No questions of which three are personal (regarding the supervisor's satisfaction with his job) but the fourth one refers to the current syllabus. A number of components and features are discussed in item two which requires ticking the most appropriate answers or statements. The first statement addresses the task undertaken by objectives in learning situations. The second statement concerns the role of objectives not only in learning but in teaching as well, and suggests handing over to the teacher the duty of stating the specific ones. The teacher's desire to change or develop the current syllabus is reflected in statement three for the supervisor's response. Affairs relating to supervision: the problems which the supervisor may encounter, guidance and direction of teachers and the participation in the process of designing English programmes are the content of the fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh statements. Proficiency and competency of the third grade learners in the intermediate stage in English is approached in statement eight whilst the last three



statements of this item deal with the four skills and their adjustment and adaptation in the three grades of intermediate. Item three concentrates on English teachers' efficiency and confidence in their work particularly what is related to the oral production. It also deals with the present syllabus as well as the proposed new one (Strevens, 1979). The respondents are required to tick one scale out of five ranged from 'a very great extent', 'a great extent' through 'some extent' to 'little extent' up to nothing or 'not at all'. The first statement considers the use of the mother tongue (Arabic) in English class which may have an effect on learning. The content and its sensitivity to Saudi culture as a factor influencing motivation and fascination is described in the second statement (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973:18). The third statement concerns the need to developing the teacher's fluency in English. SASE's material and methods of instruction are discussed in statements four and five. The item ends with a statement pertaining to the teacher's assessment and evaluation (Rivers, 1968). Where some progress took place recently in the field of communicative language design and methodology, the supervisor of English is expected to be aware of most of them. Item four is stated, consequently, to give evidence to the quality and quantity of knowledge of supervisors in their profession. The respondent is required here to tick the box which best describes what he knows about certain phrases or terms which are involved in the new developments of methods, systems of design, instructional objectives, material selection theories, media and realia and lastly techniques and strategies of instruction. Four scales are provided ranked as: 'full knowledge', 'fair knowledge', 'slight knowledge' and 'know nothing' to measure the depth of assimilation for each term or phrase (Richards et al, 1985). The 1st

item in the questionnaire is set to invite supervisor's speculations of a new programme through free-response answers. The supervisor is requested to give his overview and use his long experience to speculate on an alternative syllabus. Many aspects are put forward to be sketched out and outlined such as: the approach of the project, the aims and objectives to be reached and achieved, the method of selection and organisation of material, and the criteria on which different communicative games (e.g. simulation, role-play, lecturing) can be used (Doughty and Thornton, 1973).

#### 3.1.2.1.4. Parent's Questionnaire

Educational planning for any school-subject dictates that parents should be involved partly in developing or designing any school-course in order to get healthy and reliable operation (Saylor et al, 1980). From this standpoint the parent's questionnaire is administered to obtain necessary information concerning the society's overall aims and demands. The questionnaire is originally put in English but then translated into Arabic because not all parents are able to respond in English. It begins with blanks that have to be filled up by respondents. These blanks are connected with the area of residence, qualifications, occupation and finally the father's competence in English language. The first item illustrates general purposes where English is indispensable for those who try to achieve them. A number of these targets are organised under general statements covering the urgent daily-life needs of the clients or when they go abroad. The respondent is requested to tick the suitable objectives. Objectives inherent in the first statement deal with instructions, recipes and ingredients written in English on applicances, bottles of medicine and tins of food and drinks. The second statement describes the immediate purposes of travelling such

as passport and residence regulations, interaction with the target group and people to get things done or to seek medical assistance. The increasing demand on English in some work and jobs like trading is reflected in statement three. Mass communication is another important component where English plays a distinctive role especially for replying to an international call or corresponding in business letters. Item two in this group seeks the respondent's viewpoints on SASE and its capability to fulfil the needs outlined previously. Items four and five give a chance for parents to respond freely to open-ended questions which refer to their son's needs and requirements. The respondents are also requested to define the optimum syllabus in terms of content and methods of teaching. They are invited to give their comments and opinions, as well, to any point or issue whether related to current or the optimal syllabus (Barnes, 1982:238).

#### 3.1.2.2. Interview:

Although the major tool for gathering data is the questionnaire, interviews are used to explore some points and facets connected to the English programme in intermediate schools and to obtain some hints and suggestions relating to the prospective programme (Kidder, 1980). Supervisors of English in some directorates of Education and general inspectors and experts of English subject in the Ministry of Education were interviewed. Although some of the queries of the interview cannot be predicted by virtue of the series of responses and sequence of answers yet eleven basic questions are built for this purpose. Some of them are connected with the syllabus of English (SASE) while other inquire about the principles and criteria required as a basis to construct a new syllabus. The interviewees are also requested to specify targets and goals of English language in



intermediate stage and mention some dilemmas and problems encountered in the current syllabus and facing the forthcoming one. The questions addressed in the interview seek the views of the responsible officials and their attitudes towards developing a new curriculum of English.

#### 3.1.2.3. Observation and Tape-Recording

Some live lessons of English are tape-recorded. A table for systematic observation was designed to work concurrently with the recording for the reason that there would be some non-verbal communication that might not be recorded on cassettes (see Appendix D). The table is divided vertically into fourteen spaces holding fourteen titles such as 'the time teacher takes in talking', 'student's time talking', 'objectives are obvious' and the like. These titles are sometimes classified into sub-titles to measure and assess all aspects of the process of teaching which can be characterized with reference to the teacher's proficiency in the subject and the objectives of the lesson. The observation is not intended to be a major source of data about techniques, strategies used in lesson-demonstration because such techniques are prescribed by the Teacher's Book and the teacher follows them. The observation is carried out only to show that what happens in the classroom reflects faithfully the procedures written in the Teacher's Book. The traditional approach used by teachers throughout the lesson is an outcome of the traditional training they received in addition to the lack of in-service follow-up training.

#### 3.1.2.4. Collecting papers

A part of the field study is to obtain any type of documents, official circulars, bulletins, pamphlets, booklets or paper-notes regarding not only the English curriculum currently taught in



intermediate school but the future intentions for developing a new curriculum. Resources of such kinds are collected from educational departments in the Ministry of Education and universities which deal with the subject-matter in order to use them as documents and evidence of the research hypotheses.

### 3.1.3. The Field Work

The journey for collecting data required for the research started on the fifteenth of November 1986. On arriving in Saudi Arabia the first job done was typing the teacher's and supervisor's questionnaires in English and duplicating them into thirty photocopies. The student's and parent's questionnaires were translated into Arabic and then typed and duplicated afterwards to avoid any problem in responding as it has been mentioned already. The operation of typing, translating and duplication took two weeks (till the end of November). The time for administering and applying the questionnaires and the tools of the study started in December. The student's questionnaire was tried out on three students, and a number of considerations were taken into account before the final administration.

- a) the time of administering the questionnaire should not take more than the period-time which is forty-five minutes.
- b) the teacher who cooperates in administering the questionnaire to students should be made aware of every single point included in the questionnaire particularly those needing demonstration.
- c) some items in the student's questionnaire may not fall in the student's own interest such as the one concerning pilgrimage, however students are asked then to avoid them.

- d) the shortage of time may not allow more than three days stay in each region to collect data which entails fast work on administration and addressing of questionnaires and interviews.
- e) parents in some towns and villages might not be able to respond to their questionnaire - although it has been put in Arabic - either because they are illiterate or busy.
- f) some teachers may not allow their lessons to be tape-recorded.
- g) some terms included in the supervisor's questionnaire might be difficult for the respondents to understand, however, a short meeting could be carried out with them before or after administering the questionnaire to clarify such terms.
- h) and finally a letter of permission should also be issued from King Abdul Aziz University to sort out any problematic situation which could arise.

#### 3.1.4. Distributing, administering and addressing of data collection

First, a letter of permission was issued by the researcher's sponsorship agency (Faculty of Education, Madina Munawwarah) to facilitate the researcher's duties and performances at schools and at Ministry administration. Second, collection of data started from Makkah AL-Mukarramah, Jeddah and then AL-Medina AL-Munawwarah (Western Province) to Abha (Southern Province), then from Abha to Riyadh (Middle Province). From Riyadh another trip was made to the Eastern Province (Dammam and Sehat) and then the trip has ended in the Northern Province Tabouk.

### 3.2. Data Analysis

There are some facts and issues which should be outlined before displaying the results of the data collected:

1. a majority of data has been collected from three provinces: Western, Middle and Eastern for the following reasons:
  - a. most of the population of Saudi Arabia ( %) is settled in them.
  - b. most cities and towns in these provinces are urban.
  - c. their students seem to be aware of the role of English in their future careers and for communication with foreigners.
  - d. teachers and supervisors were more keen and interested in responding and cooperating with the researcher; this might be attributed to the life they experienced and the influence of English on it.
2. students in the Western Province have a close contact with foreigners especially pilgrims.
3. students in the Middle Province are also in touch with many foreigners (in restaurants, cafes or establishments) who speak English as a business-language.
4. a lot of students in the Eastern Province speak English which is supposed to be the outcome of communicating with Europeans and Americans in oil-companies there. Another source of that acquisition is the six television channels transmitting from the six Gulf Countries in English.
5. some rural schools consist of one classroom encompassing the three levels of intermediate stage.
6. the main problem encountered was the scattered places where the sample was taken from; transportation was not always



available.

7. some teachers were not enthusiastic about the questionnaire which might be the result of getting bored with those they have met in the past.
8. some interview-questions could not be understood by the interviewees particularly those relating to some terms and techniques of the language learning. The reason could be that such names had multiple meanings such as: competence, performance, instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, behavioural objectives and performance objectives.
9. parents did not contribute effectively in the survey since some of them were illiterate while some others were busy in their private work.
10. some supervisors requested that neither their speech, nor their words should be tape-recorded and as a result recording such interviews was not possible.
11. the student sample population was seven hundred and forty-six, two hundred and twenty-two from the first grade, two hundred and sixteen from the second grade and three hundred and two from the third grade. All students are randomly selected. SCSS computer-system is used to analyse the results of questionnaire. The number and the percentage of the respondents are the most important statistical figures for the research in order to identify the quantity of students in favour of each item. Sometimes 'means' and 'standard deviation' are also used with some questions e.g. '2' and '5'.



12. the teacher sample population was '22', the supervisor was '15' meanwhile parent sample was '10'.

### 3.2.1. Students

This part of the analysis refers to the analysis of students questionnaires, settings and topics selected by the students in terms of the four skills and situations which are likely to exist in English for communicative and educational purposes.

#### 3.2.1.1. Student's Questionnaire:

##### A) Background and interrelated information:

1. Most of the sample students are urban (nearly 73%), a few of them are non-urban (27%).
2. The ages of the students fluctuate between eleven and nineteen. The average age is 14.
3. More than 70% of the sample population is selected from the first and third year intermediate students.
4. a) 636 students (85.1%) gave 'athletics' as a hobby, either alone or in combination with others. Next most popular was reading magazines and newspapers, 378 students and a percentage of: 52.1%. Reading books comes thereafter with a selection from 313 students, followed by 'travelling' which is selected by 284 students. Pen-pal correspondence is only selected by 113 students which is ranked as the lowest hobby.  
  
b) Looking only at those who named a single hobby, athletics again scored the highest number of students (102), followed by 'reading books' - 20 students, travelling - 13 students, 'reading newspapers' - 12 students and finally 'pen-pal correspondence' is ranked with 4 students only.

- c) The combination of athletics with reading books and newspapers gained 151 students which corresponds to 20.2% of the total percentage.
- d) The least number of students are found to select the two combinations: 'reading newspapers and magazines' and 'pen-pal correspondence' (in one combination 1 student); and reading newspaper and magazines, reading books, pen-pal and travelling (in another combination 1 student).
- e) The number of students is high whenever 'athletics' combines with another hobby, e.g. athletics with 'travel', 'athletics' with 'reading newspapers' and 'reading books'.

Table 2 frequencies and percentage of students for each or a combination of hobbies.

TABLE 2

Name of Hobbies		Students' Frequencies	Percentage
Athletics	(A)	636	85.1
Reading newspapers and magazines	(N)	378	52.1
Reading books	(B)	313	51.1
Pen-pal correspondence	(P)	113	17.0
Travelling	(T)	284	38.1

#### B) Items and inquiries

##### Question '1A':

It indicates that most of the students (86.6%) did not study English before the intermediate school. Only a few of them (100 out of 746) had any experience of English before the

intermediate school.

Question '1B':

Most of the students (87.3%) say that English is important in careers and future professions.

Questions '1C':

Most of the students (93%) agree that English is worth learning.

Question '1D':

Few students (23.6 %) speak another language in addition to Arabic.

Question '1E':

The majority of the students' parents (66%) do not speak English.

Question '1F':

The majority of the students say that they feel delight and are happy when the English period comes.

Question '2A':

By totalling the values of the scales and dividing that total by the number of the responding students in each scale, it is found that the mean is 2.29 which is low, and the standard deviation is only 1.00 which is also small. That is, the material of the syllabus is not interesting for most of them.

Question '2B':

The mean view of 'the methods of teaching' is low (2.27), slightly less than the mean of the 'syllabus material', however the standard deviation is normal (1.23).

Question '2C':

The mean view in 'the teacher demonstrates the lesson in Arabic' is middling 2.62 with the standard deviation 1.32.

Question '2D':

The mean: 2.78 of 'clear purpose when learning English' is normal while the standard deviation (1.49) is large.

Question '2E':

Both the mean and the standard deviation are high and fairly large in 'activities carried out in the class'. The means is: 3.21 and the standard deviation is 1.38, which means that they are not always used during instruction since the deviation is ranked largely between 'seldom' and 'sometimes'.

Question '2F':

The means in 'the English I grasped is used to impart/seek information' is high (3.25) while the standard deviation is normal (1.26).

Question '2G':

The students' responses to this statement were fairly positive on average (2.95) but there was wide variations in their views (S.D. 1.38) which means that they only say they 'sometimes' understand conversations and dialogues included in the cassettes.

Question '2H':

It has a high means (3.26) which showed high frequency among students positive responses, but the standard deviation is 1.28

(For more clarification of Question 2 see Table 3.)

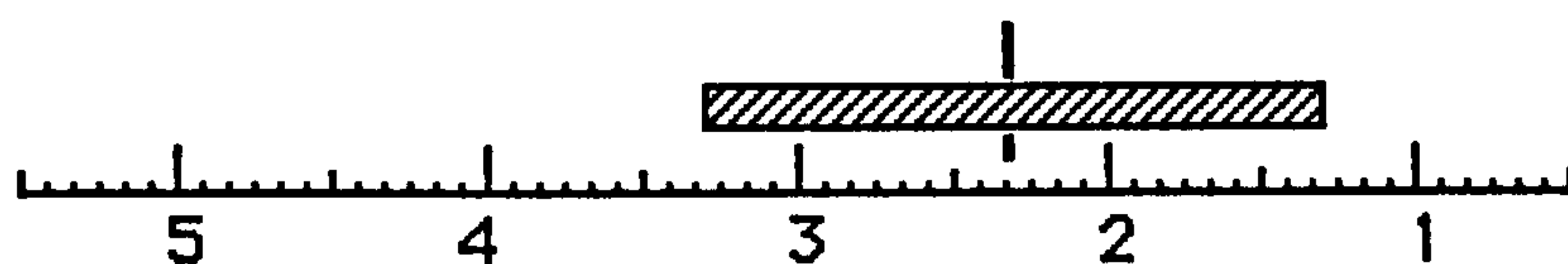
Question '3':

The students responses to the three statements of item three showed a high frequency in the 'strongly agree' and 'agree' categories. Both positive categories make up a total of 75.07 percent. The percentage of the negative responses is 6.73. A few of them were 'undecided' respondents 18.20 percent.

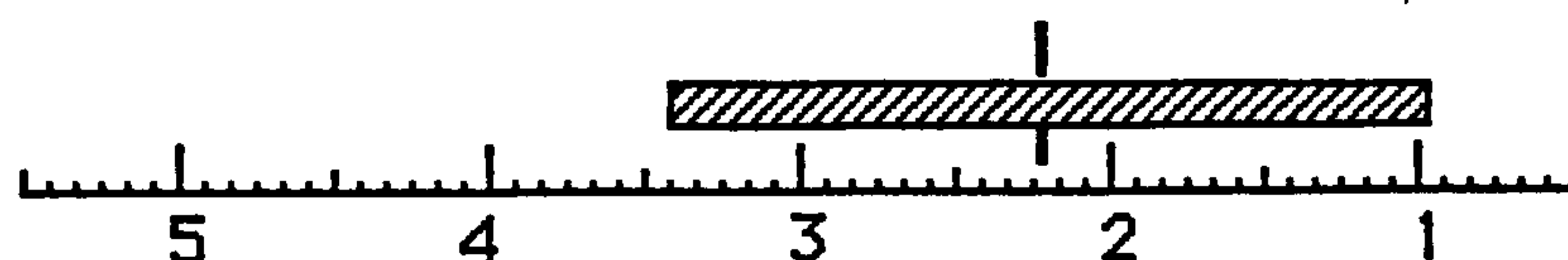


**Table 3**

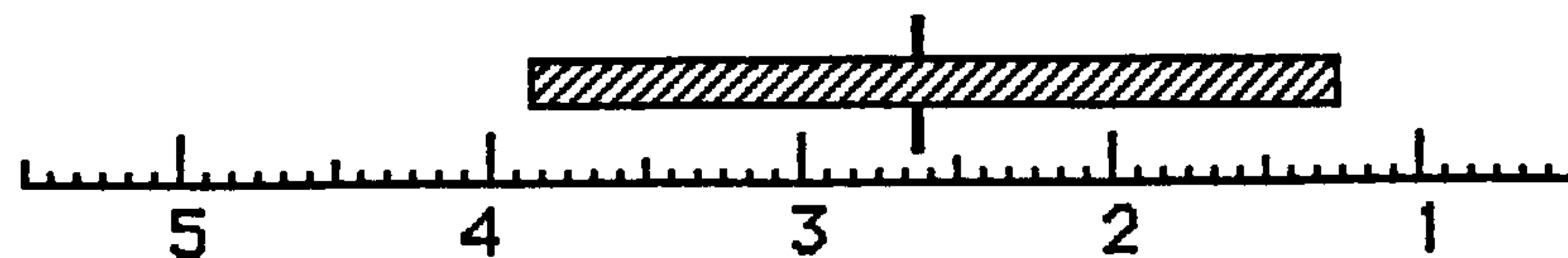
always | often | sometimes | seldom | never



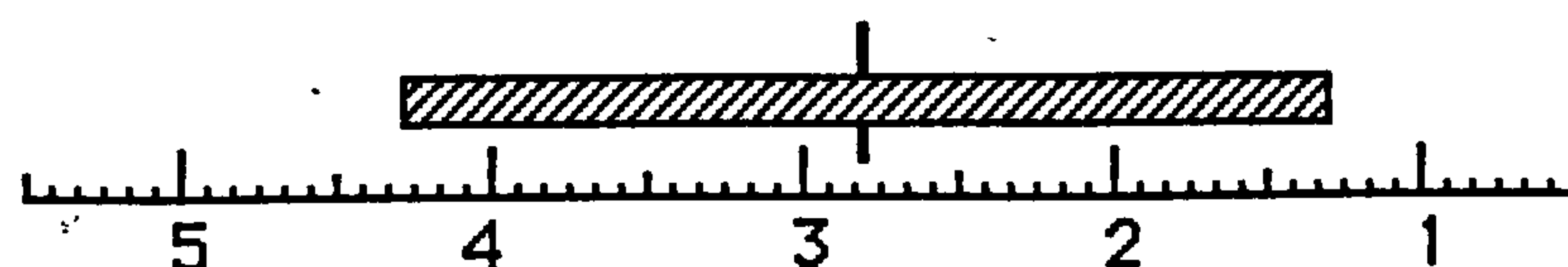
2A Syllabus material is interesting



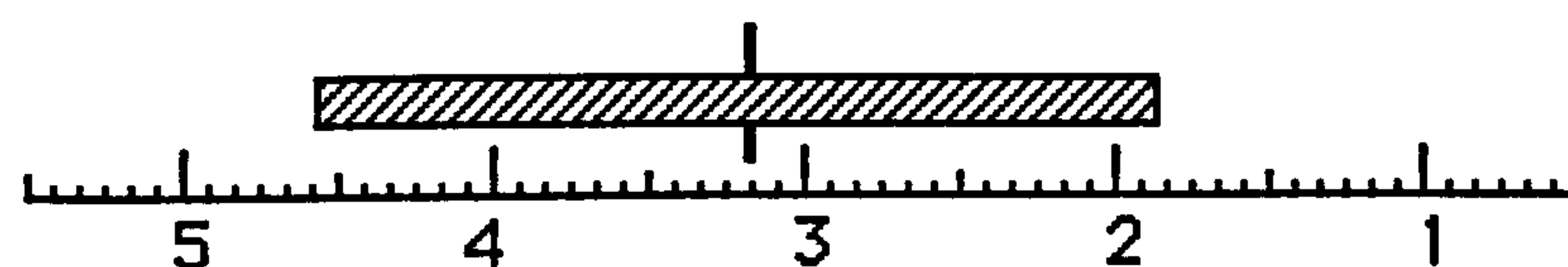
2B Teaching methods are suitable



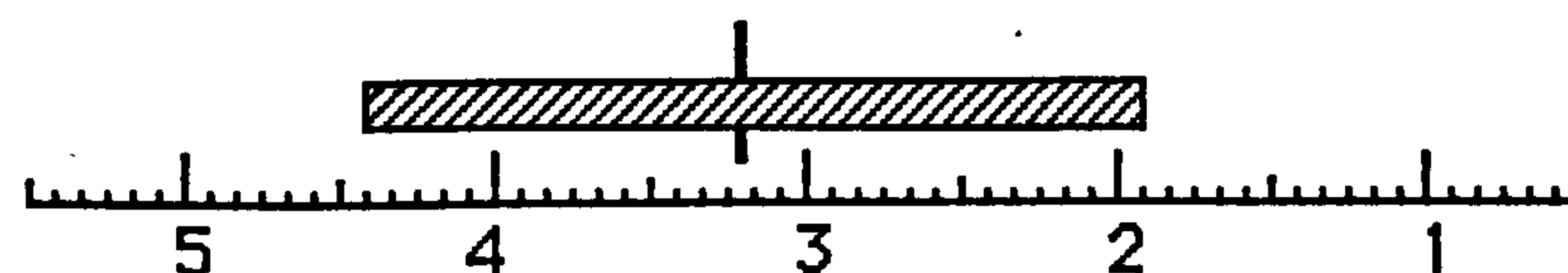
2C Arabic is used in teaching lessons



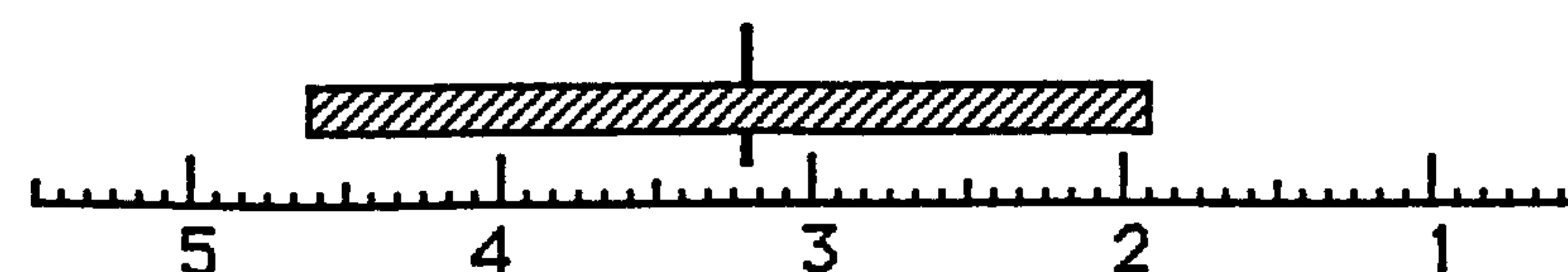
2D I see clear purposes in lessons



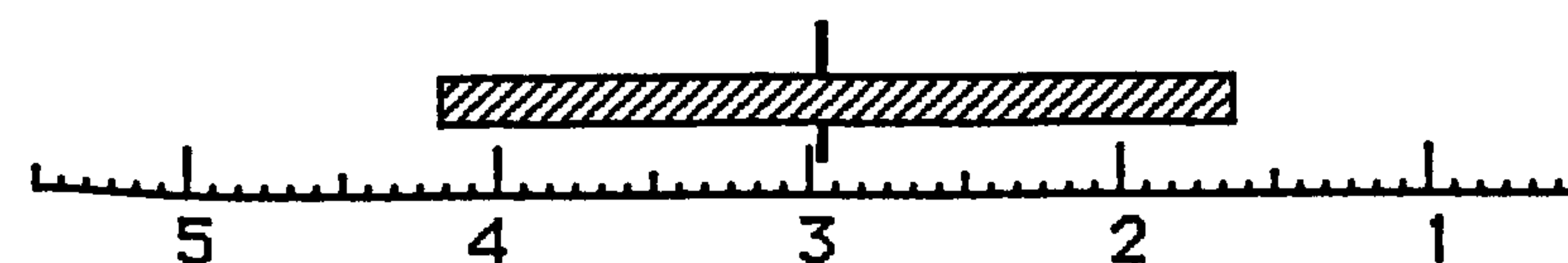
2E Simulation/role play is carried out



2F English is enough for communication



2G Understand recorded material



2H I speak English in class

always | often | sometimes | seldom | never

Question '4A':

Seven hundred and fifteen students selected English as useful for travelling abroad, with a percentage of 95.8, while a very few of them (31) did not select it.

Question '4B':

Most of the students (87.4%) also chose English for getting jobs in Saudi Arabia.

Question '4C':

Most of the respondents see English as important also for pursuing their secondary and university education. This makes a total of 686 responses with a percentage of 92.0.

Question '4D'

This question shows a negative response from many students (52.8%) which makes a total of 394 students who do not use English to communicate with pilgrims. Some of them, only 47.2 percent used English to communicate with pilgrims.

Question '4E':

In this item many of them (67.8%) said that they used English for dealing with non-Arabic speakers in Saudi markets. Most of those who did not tick the statement were rural students where no or very few foreigners are found in their environment.

Question '5':

The ratios that each student has given to each statement of the item have been rescaled so that to adapt to a total of 100. The figure for each use and utility of English, therefore, represents a popularity rating in percentage terms:

(A)

1. taking part in social interaction and participating in conversation comes first with a percentage of 22.99, and a

high means of 3.45.

2. 19.44 percent of the total percentage for dealing with airport officers with a normal means of 2.93, which brings it in the second rank.
3. 17.85 percent of the total percentage for seeking medical attention and health services with a normal means of 2.68.
4. visiting interesting places comes in the fourth position with responses of 14.72 percent and means of 2.80.
5. the fifth position is ranked for shopping with a total percentage of 13.38 and low means of 2.02.
6. the last rank selected by students is for eating and drinking in public places and restaurants which makes only 11.59 percent of the total responses with a very low means: 1.75. The missing cases were between 34 and 37 which does not affect the total responses of 746.

(B)

1. joining 'Saudia' (the Saudi Arabian Airlines) with a percentage of 26.12 and a high means of 3.89.
2. joining military institutes with a percentage of 22.24 and a high means also of 3.34.
3. the third rank is given to other civil governmental jobs which score 19.72 percent of the total responses with a means of 2.49.
4. both technical education and joining 'father in his shop' are ranked low with 16.30 percent for the former and 15.59 for the latter.

(C)

1. nearly 37 percent of the responding students need English

in pursuing further education for medicine. The means is very high: 9.88.

2. aviation comes in the second rank with 14.94 percent and also a high means of 3.97.
3. engineering has 13.50 percent of the total responses with a high means of 3.60.
4. 12 percent of the sample population need English for computer with a high means of 3.23.
5. general science is ranked the fifth position with a percentage of 8.75 and means 2.35.
6. low percentage and low means are given to 'art' and 'geography' 7 percent and 6.90 percent in sequence. Their means are below 2.

(D)

1. giving pilgrims road directions and showing them their way is selected by 22.52 percent of the responding students. The means is fairly high 3.31.
2. the responding students select 'directing pilgrims in religious aspects concerning Islam and its rites' in the second position with a percentage of 21.15 and a high means of 3.33.
3. 20.96 percent of the responding students choose seeking and imparting information and getting involved in social interaction with pilgrims, with a fairly high means 3.08.
4. dealing with pilgrims passports comes next with 18.72 percent and a means of 2.75.
5. trading with pilgrims has been ranked the last with 16.63 percent and means 2.45.



(E)

1. explaining instructions of using appliances is put the first by 22.14 percent of the responses with a high means of 3.33.
2. mentioning prices follows with 16.80 percent and means of 2.51.
3. to find out whether the customer wants to collect their items or being delivered to them comes in the third position with 16.62 percent and 2.51 means.
4. 15.63 percent of the sample only says that they want English to discuss the methods of payment with means 2.51.
5. the least percentages are: 14.72 and 14.06 given to 'defining time for receiving goods' and 'propagate the brand and goods' respectively. Both of them have means 2.21 and 2.12.

Question '6':

Most of the students (89.4 percent) say that they want to be able to listen to and speak English. Only a few of them (10.5%) say they want English for listening alone.

Question '7':

More than 92 percent of the students say that they want to be able to read and write English.

Question '8':

The majority of the students say that they want to learn the four abilities and skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing simultaneously. A few of them (21.8%) are interested in the aural-oral skills alone (listening and speaking) and also a few of them (13.7%) are interested in the discrete skills alone (reading and writing).

Question '9':

The ratings that each student gave to each statement have been rescaled so that to adapt to a total of 100. The figure for each listening material, therefore, represents a popularity rating in percentage terms:

1. Listening to English films on TV or video with a percentage of 14.50 and a high means: 3.03.
2. Listening to airport announcements with a percentage of 11.02 of the responding sample and a fairly high means: 2.30.
3. The third rank is given to listening to news and interviews in English from Radio and TV with 9.58 percent.
4. Listening to adventures and stories comes in the fourth position (8.26 percent and 1.72 means).
5. Pilgrims' queries about Islam score a percentage of 8.24 and means: 1.72.
6. The sixth position is given to things said by a ticket-office clerk with a percentage of 8.19 and means: 1.72.
7. Listening to 'a person giving directions of location' comes in the seventh position with 7.44 percent and 1.55 means.
8. Visitors' inquiries with a percentage of 6.45 and means: 1.41.
9. Listening to knowledge about science of physics on cassette comes in the ninth position with a percentage of 5.76 and 1.20 means.
10. The tenth rank is assigned to oral English from a customer with a 5.75 percent and 1.20 means.
11. Things which are said by a waiter in a cafe comes next with a percentage of 5.28 and low means of 1.10.

12. The two last ranks in this gradation are given to listening to drama and plays in English with 4.85 percent and 1.00 means followed by a dialogue by a shop-keeper with 4.26 percent and a very low mean 0.89.

Question '10':

With regard to settings and situations selected by the students: 'visitors want to rent my home' has scored 68.2 percent, making a total of 509 students, followed by 'giving directions to non-Arabs in streets' (66 percent), then 'speaking English in a restaurant' (61.7 percent). The last two positions are ranked for 'speaking English to bus-drivers' with 52.8 percent and 'in the coffee shop' with 35.3 percent. The item is calculated as the number of the responding students who ticked only these settings.

Question '11':

The sort of things which the students want to do when they speak English are ordered according to the percentage since the item asks for ticking the desirable answers:

1. answering a telephone international call (72 percent)
2. 'seeking medical services' comes in the second place with a percentage of 68.1.
3. in the third place comes 'shopping' with a percentage of 54.3.
4. telling visitors Saudi regulation and legislation is in the fourth position with 52 percent.
5. the last choice is for asking about railway ticket fares.

Question '12':

The figure for each 'interesting topic' from the following represent a popularity rating in percentage terms (see question

No. 9):

1. 'speaking about English films of the Saudi 2nd channel TV' with a percentage of 24.51.
2. 'speaking about football matches and league in Saudi Arabia' obtains similar percentage 24.11.
3. 'speaking about education and future career' is in the third place with 22.29.
4. 'speaking about journeys and picnic' scored only 15.9 percent.
5. the least motivational for students is 'speaking about English programmes on TV' with a percentage of 13.97.

Question '13A':

Concerning the items and topics preferred by the students for reading:

1. they select stories in the first place with 71.6 percent.
2. followed by 'reading instructions' with 68.1 percent.
3. in the third place conversations and dialogues are selected for reading y 63.4 percent of the responding students.
4. 'reading letters' scores only 44.9 percent of the sample.
5. while 'reading articles' is the least chosen by students with 33.1 percent.

Question '13B':

Things to be read on above mentioned topics were selected by the student population as follows, sequenced according to the total responses:

1. adventures and detective stories (67 percent).
2. historical stories (63.3 percent)
3. instructions on medicine bottles (61.3 percent)
4. famous people of the world (59.1 percent).



5. sign and notices (50.9 percent)
6. persons' names (50.4 percent)
7. menus in cafes and restaurants (47.9 percent)
8. magazines (44.6 percent)
9. comics (43.7 percent)
10. newspapers (39.9 percent)
11. maps (33.8 percent)
12. tourist brochures (33 percent)

Question '14':

Eight subjects are offered to the responding students to choose the best and more interesting ones to write about in English.

Their responses come as follows:

1. 'describing and writing about school journeys and trips' appears first with a percentage of 58.3.
2. 'filling out forms' comes next with 55.2 percent.
3. in the third place 'personal letters' occurs with a percentage of 51.2.
4. 'stories' has 49.7 percent of the total response percentages.
5. Less than half of the sample also select 'business letters' (40.1 percent) and 'abstracts and summaries' (37.7 percent).

### 3.2.1.2. Topics

There are a large number of topics selected by the sample students. These topics are chosen with reference to the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. They are classified into three groups according to the three grades of intermediate (see Appendix M.1). These topics were selected in addition to what is given in the questionnaire. They reflect the student's own preferences.

### 3.2.1.3. Situations and settings

Students also selected some situations and settings for the above topics as they are asked to do in each (B) section in the questionnaire. The number of settings seems to increase with the student's grade.

### 3.2.2. Teachers

It describes the responses of the teacher on a questionnaire and the notes and requirements issued by the teachers.

#### 3.2.2.1. Teacher's Questionnaire

From the analysis of teacher's questionnaire the following results can be inferred:

- The majority of teachers of English were from Urban area (67%) while the rural area samples was 33%.
- Concerning the weekly periods 33% have sixteen periods while about 48% have twenty periods per week or more. The rest have less than sixteen periods.

Question (I): With reference to the experience of teachers:

- A) Some of the teachers (38%) have five years or less experience as an English teacher, but the majority of them (62%) have ten years or more in the career.

B) Regarding the grades of intermediate the teachers previously taught or are teaching at present:

- A majority of them had experience of teaching in the three grades: first, second and third, about 43%, whereas a few of them (19%) taught (or are teaching) first and second grades. A very few of them teach only first grade (14%), second grade (9%) or third grade (9%).

Question (II):

Qualifications of teachers range from undergraduate diploma where some of them hold (42%). to B.A. in English (and education) where a majority of teachers have (52%). One teacher only is identified as a holder of post graduate diploma.

Question (III):

1. Some of the teachers (48%) submitted that they had enough training as a teacher of English while a small majority of them (52%) indicated that they still need further in-service training.
2. A majority of teachers (66%) declared that there were specific objectives handed down to them from Ministry of Education, the rest of them (34%) said no.
3. Most of the teachers (86%) claimed that they create their lessons' instructional objectives.
4. Half of the sample (52%) said that they were not asked to give their opinions on any point or problem of the syllabus while nearly half (48%) responded positively.
5. A majority of respondents (53%) also agreed that the current syllabus of English can produce individuals who can use English sufficiently.

Question (IV):

1. A majority of English teachers (67%) stated that the contextual material of the syllabus is suitable for students to acquire communicative competence.
2. The same number of teachers (67%) agreed that the methods of teaching prescribed by the textbook-writer of the present syllabus serve the purpose of communication.
3. Regarding the preparation-book of teachers less than half of the sample (38%) 'strongly agreed' and 'agreed' that it should include every single point occurring in the process of teaching, while the same percentage (38%) disagree.
4. Most of the teachers (76%) 'strongly' agreed or agreed that rules of grammar should not be introduced in the first grade.
5. Most of the teachers (72%) also agreed that the activities should be selected equally by the teacher and his students.
6. Most of the respondents (80%) accepted simulation, role-play and dramatization as the principle techniques and classroom activities to promote interactive situations.
7. The same quantity of teachers (80%) welcome spontaneous activities arising out of instructional interaction.

Question (V):

Most of the teachers (80%) selected the typical topics group (A) and justified their selection as they - topics - reflected the real-life situations which could be found in daily English.

Question (VI):

Concerning the topics pool which was presented to teachers to match the most relevant settings to the level of learning:



1. All teachers matched 'personal identification' with the first grade..
2. A majority of teachers matched 'hobbies and sports' to the second grade.
3. While some of the teachers selected 'House and Home' for the third grade, others also chose them for the second grade. A few of the respondents matched them with the first grade.
4. Some teachers circled second grade for 'Travel' while others endorsed it for the third grade.
5. With reference to 'education and future career' a majority of teachers matched it with the third grade, whereas a few of them matched it with the first and second grades.
6. Some of the teachers indicated that the third grade is the most appropriate level for introducing 'Relations with others' while a few of them preferred the second grade for it.
7. A majority of teachers selected 'shopping and prices' for the second grade while some of them matched the topic for the first grade.
8. On to 'food and drink' a few teachers recommended it to be placed in the first grade, while a majority of them chose it for the second and third grade.
9. 'Services' was matched to the second and third grades by a majority of teachers, while a minority of the sample put it in the first grade.
10. Some teachers agreed that 'Places' should be within the third grade syllabus while some others located it in the first grade.

11. Most teachers selected 'Health and Welfare' for the third grade, only a few of them endorsed it for the first, and a few for the second grades.

Question (VII):

1. Regarding the degree of teacher's fluency in English a majority of them (57%) said that they speak English fluently to a great extent, while some of them (38%) declared their weakness in oral production of the language.
2. More than half of the responding sample (62%) do not see that emphasis in intermediate stage should be put on listening and speaking. The rest (38%) see the opposite.
3. A majority of teachers (52%) believe that the three intermediate syllabuses are to some extent interlocked to form a coherent unit while a few of them only (38%) say the opposite.
4. A majority of teachers (52%) do not feel that the supervisors' knowledge and experience contribute to the improvement of English teaching in their schools.
5. A majority of teachers (66%) indicate that the structural approach still dominates the contemporary syllabus to some extent while some of them (20%) think it dominates to a very great extent.
6. Most of the teachers (71%) enjoy their career considerably.
7. Some of the teachers (43%) agree that testing listening and speaking is not considered to a great extent while some others (38%) do to some extent.

Question (VIII):

Concerning the emphasis of the four skills:

1. Most of the teachers (96%) agree that speaking skill should

be emphasised in the first grade followed by listening (75%).

2. In the second year a majority of teachers (71%) also believe that concentration should be on speaking, followed by listening (62%). They ranked reading and writing lower.
3. A majority of teachers (52%) highlight listening in the third grade while some of them (47%) give speaking and reading prominence in the third grade.

Question (IX):

Referring to the discourse of instruction:

1. Most of the teachers give the view-listening method a high rank in the first grade (76%), followed by discussion-questioning (66%) and finally lecturing (80%).
2. Most of the responding teachers (76%) emphasise 'view-listening' also for the second grade, followed by lecturing (52%) and then discussion-questioning (42%).
3. A few teachers (28%) emphasise lecturing for the third grade, yet view-listening (42%) is still ranked in the first place followed by discussion-questioning (42%).

3.2.2.2. Teacher's Notes and Requirements

1. It would be better if a vocabulary list is added after each lesson and translated into Arabic.
2. Teachers should be given more freedom to choose extra activities.
3. Audio-visual aids e.g. video-tape, should be increased to help in teaching.
4. The English exam which is set by Ministry of Education is a grammatical-major test.

5. Pupils cannot practice what they have learnt.
6. Material in the textbooks is not sufficient to deal with daily-life requirements.
7. Pupils forget vocabulary because they do not practise it in real life situations.
8. Attention should be drawn to other types of aids like films and videos to help in interaction.
9. The current English books need a qualified teacher who can help the students to like and use the language.

#### 3.2.2.3. Recorded Lessons

Four lessons are recorded from the three main provinces; Western, Middle and Eastern. They are live lessons describing the step-by-step procedures taking place in the English classroom. The first three lessons reflect the type of approach used for teaching/learning, its main features and traits. The fourth lesson shows the frequency of using the mother tongue (Arabic) in an English lesson.

#### 3.2.2.4. Observed Lessons

Seven live English lessons were observed in addition to the recorded ones. Each lesson represents a school, and each school represents a province, however, two schools from each of the Western and Middle provinces were selected. Table 4 illustrates the results of the observation. The Table is divided into sixteen points or scales of assessment besides the name of the school. From the Table it can be seen that motivation is hardly developed or found in lessons. Even those (one or two lessons) which are motivating to students seem to be ineffective. Aids and realia are generally disregarded. There is also a resistance to socializing in the class



TABLE 4.

Name of School	Motivation	Feedback	Class Contribution	Discipline
Al-Hus'atashim	No motivation	Only five praising words	Most of the class contribute	Not maintained
Al-Hagherah Bin-Shus'abah	No motivation	Many of them good	Most of the class contribute	Maintained
Third Intermediate School in Abha	Motivation is found but not effective	8 words of 'Yes', 'good', 'right'	All of the class contribute	Maintained
Omar Ben Abdul Aziz	Motivation is not found	Very few words of 'good'	Half of the class contribute	Maintained
Abdul Rahman Al-Dakhil	Motivation is not found	1 Yes and 4 'good'	Most of the class contribute	Maintained
Amr Bin Al-A'ass	No motivation	Few words and some gestures only	Most of the class contribute	Maintained
Al-Falah	He stimulates only the new lesson	Feedback is found to a great extent	Most of the class contribute	Fairly maintained
Name of School	Translation	English Culture	Socialisation	Grammar
Al-Hus'atashim	Sentences = 23 Words = 17	Not recognised	To little extent	Inductive approach
Al-Hagherah Bin Shus'abah	Sentences = 12 Words = 13	Not recognised	To very little extent	Inductive approach
Third Intermediate School in Abha	Sentences = 49 Words = 4	Not recognised	To some extent	Inductive approach
Omar Ben Abdul Aziz	Sentences = 37 Words = 6	Not recognised	To very little extent	Inductive approach
Abdul Rahman Al-Dakhil	Sentences = 63 Words = 42	Not recognised	No socialisation	Inductive approach
Amir Bin Al-A'ass	Sentences = 12 Words = 32	Not recognised	To very little extent	Inductive approach
Al-Falah	Sentences = 7 Words = 86	Not recognised	To some extent	Inductive approach
Name of the School	Length of student contribution	Type of Questions	Orientation	Character of Contribution
Al-Hus'atashim	complete sentences = 13 incomplete sentences = 17	Most for eliciting predictable response	Focus on accuracy	Pupils repeating after the teacher
Al-Hagherah Bin Shus'abah	complete sentences = 2 incomplete sentences = 6	Mostly for eliciting predictable responses	Focus on accuracy	Pupils repeating after the teacher
Third Intermediate School in Abha	complete sentences = 7 incomplete sentences =	Mostly for eliciting predictable responses	Focus on accuracy	Pupils formulating own responses (revision)
Omar Ben Abdul Aziz	complete sentences = 5 incomplete sentences = 18	Half of them for eliciting predictable responses	Focus on accuracy	Pupils repeating after the teacher
Abdul Rahman Al-Dakhil	complete sentences = 21 complete sentences = 3	Mostly for eliciting predictable responses	Focus on accuracy	Pupils formulating own response (revision)
Amr Bin Al-A'ass	complete sentences = 6 incomplete sentences = 14	Mostly for eliciting predictable responses	Focus on accuracy	Pupils repeating after the teacher
Al-Falah	complete sentences = 4 incomplete sentences = 44	Mostly for eliciting predictable responses	Focus on accuracy	Pupils formulating their answers
Name of School	Objectives	Amount of Time for Student	Innovations	
Al-Hus'atashim	No objectives at all	One quarter of period time	Never found	
Al-Hagherah Bin-Shus'abah	Some explicit but structural objectives	less than one quarter of period time	Never found	
Third Intermediate School in Abha	Implicit objectives	One third of period time	Never found	
Omar Ben Abdul Aziz	Implicit objectives	One quarter of period time	Never found	
Abdul Rahman Al-Dakhil	Implicit objectives	Two-thirds of period time	Never found	
Amr Bin Al-A'ass	Implicit objectives	One fifth of period time	Never found	
Al-Falah	Some explicit objectives	A quarter of period time	Never found	

since socialisation is either absent or done to a little extent. Discipline is generally maintained; the translation is often carried out by teachers. All approaches used in introducing discrete elements of English are inductive, thus questions asked by teachers are only for eliciting predictable responses. Communication rarely exists in the class; the reason being the correcting of every single error from students inhibits the chance for real communication. Objectives are found implicit and vague in some lessons but skipped in others. English cultural aspects are utterly overlooked in all lessons.

### 3.2.3. Supervisors

This part analyses the questionnaire of the supervisors and outlines their comments, notes and recommendations.

#### 3.2.3.1. Supervisor's Questionnaire

1. With reference to the number of years of experience as a supervisor some of them (42%) have five years or less in the career, a few have long experience of twenty years. A few also (14%) have approximately ten years in their profession.
2. The in-service training of the supervisors seems to be very modest. Most of the supervisors (72%) have not attended any in-service training while some of them have only a period of three months in-service training.
3. The majority of the supervisors (52%) seem to be responsible for about thirty schools each while a few of them (14%) have twenty schools or less to supervise.
4. Concerning the number of teachers of English who are directed by supervisors a majority of English inspectors (57%) supervise between seventy and one hundred English teachers, whereas some

of them (28%) direct forty to sixty English teachers.

5. The qualifications of supervisors seem to be of high note since most of them (79%) have a masters degree while just a very few of them have only a B.A. in English.

Question (I):

1. Most supervisors (92%) are interested in their job as supervisors. This may give an indication of positive attitudes towards their career and consequently the enthusiasm to improve their quality of performance.
2. A majority of supervisors (65%) agree that they need further training and education in their field as supervisors. This might correlate with the in-service training item which most supervisors answered negatively.
3. Most supervisors (93%) seem to be fluent in English. This would suggest that if any communicative syllabus based on aural-oral method is taking place there will be no problem in directing and supervising it.
4. Most of the respondents (78%) also agree that the present curriculum of English in the intermediate stage needs to be changed or developed. The view of change among supervisors is also endorsed in some old (Al-Habeeb, 1981) and recent studies (Al-Ahaydib, 1986) done for this purpose.

Question (II):

1. The first statement seems significant since most of the supervisors strongly agreed or agreed that behavioural objectives are important for teaching English in the intermediate stage.
2. Concerning the statement of specific and behavioural objectives, some of the supervisors seem to have been



confused by the two terms 'specific' and 'behavioural' - although the researcher explained the meaning personally to them. They answered the item with 'undecided'. Some others agree that the specific objectives should be prestatated for teachers, but the teacher's job is to state the behavioural ones.

3. A majority of the responding supervisors also agreed that there is a common feeling of changing or developing the curriculum of English among intermediate English teachers. A few of them only (28%) responded negatively.
4. With regard to the number of visits carried out by supervisors to schools, a majority of them (65%) agree that they visit school twice a year for the reason that a large number of teachers are under their supervision. The effect of this would be reflected in the efficiency of the supervision as a tool for improving the instruction of the language.
5. As a consequence of the preceding response, most of the supervisors agree that post-visit meetings are rarely held.
6. The sixth statement shows a balanced view since half of the respondents (50%) agreed that their suggestions are traced and carefully followed by teachers while some of them (42%) said no. A few of them (7%) did not decide to respond to this statement.
7. A majority of supervisors agreed that they were not consulted when the current English syllabus was set, whereas a very few of them said the opposite.
8. All supervisors disagree with the eighth statement that the third grade students can communicate easily in English.



9. They also agree (60%) that learning in intermediate stage should emphasise listening and speaking rather than reading and writing.
10. All supervisors 'strongly agreed' or 'agreed' that selecting attractive material is important to achieve comprehension in reading.
11. Most of them also agreed on communicative topics for writing such as: repeat writing, summary, dialogue, letters. They agree that these are sufficient for beginner-learners.

Question (III):

1. Nearly half of the supervisors agreed that teachers of English use Arabic in explanation 'to a great extent' while the other half lower this to 'to some extent'.
2. A majority of supervisors agreed that the material was 'to a great extent' sensitive to the Saudi culture and learner's background, however a few of them said the contrary.
3. Responding to the third statement identifies the weakness of the English teachers in handling the skill of speaking which entails a recommendation from all supervisors that teachers should improve their speaking skill to a great extent.
4. A majority of supervisors agreed that the material in the present syllabus to some or little extent meets the students' needs and maturation.
5. With reference to the methods of teaching nearly 50% of the supervisors agree that the methods of teaching involved in SASE are effective while the other half respond negatively.

6. Statement six refers to the evaluation of teachers where a majority of the supervisors confessed that the evaluation is not always carried out objectively.

Question (IV):

1. All supervisors seem to have a fair knowledge about the two most common approaches of teaching a language: communicative and structural. However, some of them showed little knowledge about the psycho-humanistic approach.
2. On the method of instruction, all supervisors (100%) seem to be familiar with these methods although a few of them (22%) declared their ignorance about the task based method.
3. Most supervisors indicated (78%) that they had fair knowledge of the systematic planning of curriculum, yet some of them displayed ignorance of the other two types of syllabus designs: spiral (35%) and cyclical (28%).
4. In relation to objectives most respondents (90%) appear to be familiar with instructional and expressive objectives but some (35%) were not familiar with affective objectives.
5. It appears also that most of them (80%) were acquainted the 'authenticity' of material as a term, however, other terms like 'contrived' or 'exploitation' of material seemed to be vague for some of them (35%).
6. The three teaching techniques of simulation, role-play and dramatization were familiar to the responding sample (92%).
7. A majority of supervisors (71%) indicated full or fair knowledge of how to operate language labs. The same percentage were qualified to use filmstrips and audio-visual aids in large group instruction.
8. Pedagogical theories concerning language teaching and

learning such as foreign and second language learning and acquisition seem to be well known by all supervisors.

9. The three strategies of instructions listed at the end of question IV received a full response from all supervisors.

#### 3.2.3.2. Supervisor's Notes and Remarks

1. Students' immediate needs and maturation are little considered in the current curriculum of English.
2. The design and content selection of the present syllabus impede the learners from communicating freely.
3. Material and information are not authentic enough to be readily accepted by the students.
4. English culture is absolutely absent and therefore students hardly know anything about English-speaking people.
5. The syllabus lacks the linguistic and cultural elements.

#### 3.2.4. Experts and accountable people

This section discusses the opinions of some experts in the field of teaching English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia. All of them are PhD holders in the subject-matter, however, two of them are consultants in the Ministry of Education, Department of the Educational Development, while the third one is teaching and lectures in methods of teaching English as a foreign language in King Abdul Aziz University. The interviews address questions of different types, yet all emphasise on the validity and effectiveness of the current English syllabus: design and implementation; and their views of the prospects for a new syllabus of English. Detailed analyses of these interviews are set in Appendix X.

### 3.2.5. Parents:

A questionnaire was given to parents, yet only a few were returned by them, however their notes are worth recognition.

#### 3.2.5.1. Parent's Questionnaire

##### Question (I):

1. The first statement addressed to parent is about the purposes that English can be used to serve at home.
  - a. All parents stated that English is required for carrying out instructions of electrical appliances such as TV, video or washing machine.
  - b. Most respondents (80%) agreed that English is necessary to read instructions written on medicine bottles which may not be included in Arabic prescriptions or difficult to read in Arabic.
  - c. Most parents (80%) also said that English is important to understand the ingredients of some foods or drinks in tins and bottles.
2. The second statement refers to the use of English as a tool for gaining communication with people abroad:
  - a. Most parents (80%) marked passport and customs officers at foreign airports.
  - b. All the responding sample agreed that English is very important for communicative interaction and socializing in addition to get their things done.
  - c. Most parents (70%) identified seeking medical assistance as one of the important targets served by English language in a foreign country.



3. Referring to the use of English at work:

- a. A majority of parents (60%) said that they need English to deal with foreign customers about: prices, goods, brands and qualities.
- b. Most parents (80%) mentioned responding to international calls, replying to business letters and sending telegrams as the main use of English in mass-communication.

Question (II):

Most parents (90%) indicated that they need their sons to carry out some or all of those tasks said above, thus English syllabus should aim at them.

Question (III):

A majority of parents (60%) stated that the current syllabus of English does not serve these purposes adequately.

3.2.5.2. Parent's Notes and Requirements

1. English should be taught in the elementary school.
2. Teaching English should emphasise speaking.
3. Periods of English should be increased.
4. Teachers should teach English in English, meantime necessary explanation might be done in Arabic.
5. Arabic should be used for explanation in the first grade.
6. A part of the first grade syllabus should be specified for teaching grammar of English, and another part in the second and third syllabuses should be specified for teaching phonetics.
7. Topics should be characterised with Islamic culture and Saudi traditional features.
8. Courses of English should incorporate some medical information.
9. Scientific, technological and diplomatic English should also be

- incorporated in the intermediate syllabus of English.
10. View-listening should be adopted as a method of teaching in intermediate stage.
  11. Rewarding learners should be one of the techniques in teaching.
  12. Homework should be replaced by interactive activities in the class.
  13. Role-play and simulation should be involved in methods of instruction.
  14. Memorising some vocabulary is important in this stage.
  15. English language literature should be taught.
  16. Dialogue should be focused on when teaching.

#### 3.2.6. Documents and Reports

A lot of pamphlets, bulletins and circulars were collected in the field study. Some concern teaching and learning, some relate to the syllabus objectives and goals, others pertain to supervision and teacher's assessment while some others involve the regulation of testing and student's assessments. Some reports were also collected to support the methods of teaching and supervision which are carried out in schools. They are used to evidence many facts and issues argued in different places of this research.

#### 3.3. Data Interpretation

The accumulation of figures and comments embedded in the Data Analysis establishes one fact and one result. The fact is that the current syllabus is approached by the structural method: in its design, teaching, learning and assessment. The result is a need for planning a new curriculum of English involving: a new syllabus, a new system of student's assessment, a new system of English teacher's

training and supervision.

### 3.3.1. Goals and Objectives

All the bulletins and pamphlets sent to teachers and supervisors state general targets and objectives. Some of them have been discussed in the preceding Chapter which showed a surface view and abstract treatment of the issue. The statement of objectives discussed in Chapter 2 clarifies the lack of communicative objectives in the current English syllabus. Students' responses of Question '2D' in normal mean but the standard deviation (SD) is less consistent and ranked between seldom and never which means that most of the students do not see clear purposes.

This is supported by item three of students' questionnaire where most of the students selected the three reasons for learning English. In other words the responses of item three showed that students recognise the usefulness of English in their lives, but they also cannot ignore the fact of its existence as a subject in the timetable which they should pass in examination. If English is instrumentally motivating to students they should have seen purposes for learning, and disagree with the first two responses. From the teacher's questionnaire a conflict in responses is seen in item '3' statement '2' and '3'. While a majority of teachers have declared that these were specific objectives handed down to them from the Ministry of Education (66 percent) the rest of them (34 percent) did not, yet in item '3' most of them (86 percent) say that they create their instructional objectives. The meaning of specific objectives seems to be not clear in their minds because instructional or behavioural objectives are part of specific objectives. Thus, if specific objectives are handed down to them why should they then create



instructional objectives?<sup>(1)</sup> The result of the 'Observation' show that most lessons are carried out without any attempt to identify their objectives, and even those found in the few lesson presentations are implicit and not clear-cut. The consultant of the Ministry of Education states that aims of the policy cannot lead teachers in their job. These aims, he said:

"should be specified and put in the teacher's mind that conduct teaching procedures, step by step from one point to another till we get to the general point of the objective"

(Dr. Alam - see Appendix X.1.)

The second English Consultant in the Ministry of Education acknowledges that:

"even the supervisors of English do not know what objectives are. They never go and tell the teachers what the objectives of teaching English are. If you asked about objectives in a questionnaire the majority of teachers would not have any idea about what objectives are. I myself was a teacher and a supervisor of English but never heard of objectives of teaching English in Saudi Arabia..... most of these objectives are away. They are not to the point".

(Dr. Mushtak - see Appendix X.2.)

On the other hand, other supervisors of English say that:

"any syllabus which is going to be designed in future should help the student to acquire fluency, to express themselves and to communicate with people from other cultures easy"

(Tabauk supervisor)

They agree that behavioural objectives are important for teaching English in intermediate stage.

With reference to the statement of objectives one of the consultants says that students in intermediate school need English for academic, vocational, working and communicative purposes (see Appendix X.2., interview). Other supervisors admit that 'students

(1) For clarification of difference between specific and instructional objectives see Review of Literature Chapter 2.



here in Saudi Arabia are now more exposed to English than they have been before so they need English to communicate'. This is also supported by the students when most of them say that English is important in communication and careers. Most of them (about 96 percent) select English for the purpose of travelling abroad which means for the purpose of communication. The percentages in 'communicating with pilgrims' and 'communicating with non-Arabic speakers in the Saudi markets' give rise to communication even if they are low, because they reinforce the 'communication' of travelling. In travelling itself (Q5A) students give a high percentage for 'social interaction and participating in conversation' which implies that English for socialization should be the focus of English for communication. Shopping is less important than visiting interesting places or seeking medical services seeing that prices are usually fixed on sale items, thus a need to negotiate with the seller is rarely demanded. Likewise, eating and drinking stimulate less respondents than others because the special type of food and the particular method of eating in Saudi Arabia may not lead many students to think of foreign restaurants and eating in them. Concerning the profession and careers 'Saudia' and military institutes secured about 50 percent of the five careers included. It reveals the students' major aim of leaving the school after the intermediate stage and joining either 'Saudi' or 'military institutes'. Nevertheless those intending to pursue their education select the area of 'medicine' as the most likely that they will join after the secondary stage (37 percent) followed by aviation; the reason behind the choice of such topics as: doctors, hospitals, piloting, aeroplane (see 'topics selected by students, Appendix M.1.). A vast range of objectives are produced from the 'pilgrimage'

English and business English, however, ratings of selections vary from statement to statement according to needs and desires of students. Question five throws light upon the real objectives of English in intermediate stage. The objectives should be adjusted and accommodated to meet the student population demands. The process of adjustment should be done on the criteria of the common nation's desires and the nature of English as a functional language with its features of knowledge and culture.

### 3.3.2. Learning experiences and content

A majority of teachers (67 percent) stated that the contextual material of the current English syllabus is suitable for students, conversely, students mean and standard deviation in Question '2' show that two thirds of the material is neither interesting nor communicative. Most accountable people agree that titles in the first grade intermediate should be more motivational than the existing ones in order to entice the students. The Tabouk Supervisor states that the material is not helpful for the students in communication and 'does not cater for the motivation or the need of the students'. This opposes the major responses of teachers in statement '5' item '3' that the current syllabus can produce individuals who can use English sufficiently. The paradoxical situation of teachers' responses is reflected in their note that 'material in the textbooks is not sufficient to deal with daily-life requirements', which means that some of the teachers find the material adequate while some others find it inadequate. The supervisors' responses in the questionnaire confirms that the material meets the students' needs only to some or little extent. They raise the issue of authenticity of learning experiences and

content as they note that material and information are not authentic. They conclude by saying that the design and content selection of the present syllabus impede the learners from communication.<sup>(1)</sup> A clear image of the situation is quoted from the supervisor at Tabouk:

"the teacher and the student do not see practical clear value of the syllabus. The teacher enthusiasm of teaching the material is not enough and the response of the student is not what we expect. One of the main causes of the low standard of achievements is the unauthenticity of the material".

(Abdul Hafeez, 1987)

The material of the syllabus as demonstrated in the last chapter consists of strictly controlled exercises based directly on oral work whose main function is to consolidate the discrete elements of English. During the meeting with the supervisors of Makkah Educational Zone they expressed their dissatisfaction with the material of the current intermediate and secondary syllabus and declared that 'after the six years of learning English the student graduates from the secondary school without being able to formulate one single sentence of his own'.

Concerning the culture of English, supervisors assert that it is absent in the current syllabus. Table 4 of the Lesson-observation records marks no indication to cultural presentation in any lesson observed. One of the supervisors' notes is: 'the syllabus lacks the linguistic and cultural elements which can help students to learn the language with job'. Teaching a culture of English is a controversial matter among consultants and supervisors. Some of them say that it is not relevant since the student will not always find a native

(1) See Supervisors' Notes and Requirements



speaker to communicate with (Alam). Others say that 'as we are required to understand the culture of other people we should help our students here to understand other cultures' (Abdul Hafeez). They add that teaching any language should be associated with its culture. But negative aspects of English culture are not to be included in a syllabus as far as they oppose the ethical discipline of Islamic culture (Alam and Mushtaq). Nevertheless, Mushtaq agrees that 'students must know at least the names of some of the things that are prohibited such as: bacon, lard, liquor, wine'. The consultant justifies his statement by saying:

"I personally see no harm in knowing the names of those things and understanding what they are. So that if the students go abroad they can be careful in not using these things or eating them."

(Appendix X.2. - interview)

The situations which such items are taught in are also provided as Abdul Hafeez points out that 'we can talk about a Muslim student in London and he is going into a restaurant or a hotel; this situation can help in dealing with these materials'.

### 3.3.3. Approach, methods and skills

With reference to the approach of the current syllabus, Dr. Mushtak thinks that the writer's claim of functional/notional design of the syllabus is partially true but it is not completely notional/functional. The respondent parents strongly call for functional English; English 'for carrying out instructions of electrical appliances', 'to read instructions written on medicine bottles' and 'to understand ingredients of some foods or drinks in tins and bottles'. All these are functions of English which are overlooked by the current syllabus, the reason behind 'why pupils cannot practise what they have learnt' (Teacher's Notes and Requirements). Since communication is stated as the prime goal of teaching English,



the approach can be a compound of functions, situations and notions. More associated with the approach is the methods of instruction which are negatively perceived by the students. The mean is low and the standard deviation is small since most responses - as shown in Table 3 appear in the three lowest categories: sometimes, seldom and never. The standard deviation is still less in the third answer concerning the use of Arabic in the English period. It denotes the considerable amount of Arabic which is used during the English lesson by the teacher. This is obvious in the recorded lesson where more than '35' inquiries and statements are uttered by the teacher within '35' minutes of English period.<sup>(1)</sup> This counts one minute for one sentence which seems to be too frequent. The teachers are aware of the defects of the syllabus and the lack of fluency among students which compels them to translate instructions and some material even if they are better set in English. The standing of translation is elaborated by the 'Riyadh school teacher' who used a typical grammar-translation lesson in his teaching. Although translation of the other two recorded lessons from the Western and Eastern Provinces does not frequently appear, yet the structural approach is clearly recognised. The majority agreement among teachers (Question IV '2') on 'the methods of the syllabus' serving the purpose of communication has one interpretation that is the misconception of the term communication and how to devise learning to achieve this purpose. In other words the inefficiency of the teachers as EFL teachers is behind their positive answer. This agreement is also found in the

(1) See Appendix E 'The Use of Arabic in the English Lesson'

Supervisor's questionnaire (Question III '5') as half of the sample agree that the methods of teaching are relevant to a great extent. Such answers presuppose a review and re-estimation of both teachers' and supervisors' qualifications and adequacy. Concerning feedback they are little used as shown from observation Table 4. Teaching aids are rarely used by teachers and are restricted to the 'blackboard'. The teachers in their notes ask for more audio-visual aids. They state that 'attention should be drawn to other types of aids like films and videos'. The shortage of aids and realia contributes to the decline of motivation in general and students' attitudes towards the language and its culture in particular films, pictures, real recording of street-conversations, maps and slides on overhead projectors are very effective stimuli in language learning.

Most of the respondents vary among themselves about the skills and activities which should be deployed in intermediate syllabus. Most of the teachers see that communicative activities such as: role-play and simulation are principal classroom techniques for eliciting communication, yet they do not use them as shown from the recorded and observed lessons. The students responses and the actual observation of lessons show that such games are not carried out which means that either they misunderstand the terms (role-play, simulation, and dramatization) or they believe that they should be the language class activities but the current syllabus does not give them rise. The abilities of listening and speaking are not recognised by any teachers as important skills in intermediate syllabus (Question Q'7', '2'), however, in question '8' a majority of the teachers agree that both speaking and listening are the two basic skills in the intermediate stage. This contradiction might be explained by the shift from the more detailed scale in Q.7 to a more

general one in Q.8. With reference to the methods of teaching there seems to be a total agreement on view-listening in both grades first and second intermediate followed by discussion-questioning. Lecturing has low frequencies although it is sometimes important for practising listening. Pertaining to the selection of topics most teachers selected the second group as they reflect the real-life situations. These sustain the approach of communicative design of English in intermediate stage. The teachers have different views concerning the organisation of the topics in the pool, however, all teachers matched 'personal identification' and 'food and drink' with the first grade, 'hobbies and sports' and 'shopping and prices' with the second grade while they matched 'travel', 'education and future career' and 'health and welfare' with the third grade. Such matching gives priority to the instant requirements for social survival and delays complex topics as 'health and welfare' to the third grade.

#### 3.3.4. Assessment and Supervision

Concerning students assessment the majority of teachers believe that the oral skills (listening and speaking) are overlooked and the emphasis is only put on the graphic skills (reading and writing). They also state that 'the English exam which is set by Ministry of Education is grammatical-major test', which explains the reason behind the focus on the graphic skills. Even the revision lesson recorded and displayed shows that all questions from teachers are for eliciting predictable answers or completing sentences which are in any case highly structured and help only the skills and not the ability of speaking and listening.

Referring to the teacher assessment the majority of the supervisors acknowledge that the process of assessment is subjectively



done and attribute that to the norms and criteria which are dictated by Ministry of Education. As it is uttered by the consultant: 'we are not free to have our criteria, but criteria are imposed on us in this format from Ministry of Education and we have to use it. In many situations it does not give a good idea about the teacher's performance and his real ability'. This illustrates the inadequacy of the teacher's assessment programmes and the defective nature of the evaluation.

Supervision also suffers from inefficiency of performance since shortcomings exist in every sector of the curriculum. Many teachers declared in the questionnaire (Question VII '4') that the supervisor's knowledge and experience does not contribute to the improvement of English teaching. This is supported by the supervisors' responses that their suggestions are not adopted by the teachers. Further, the number of visits carried out by supervisors to schools is not sufficient to undertake proficient supervision. Post-visit conferences with teachers are held rarely.

### Concluding

On this basis it can be concluded that the current curriculum of English should be changed. It does not need only improvement since

"curriculum improvement means changing certain aspects of the curriculum without changing the fundamental conceptions of it or its organisation"

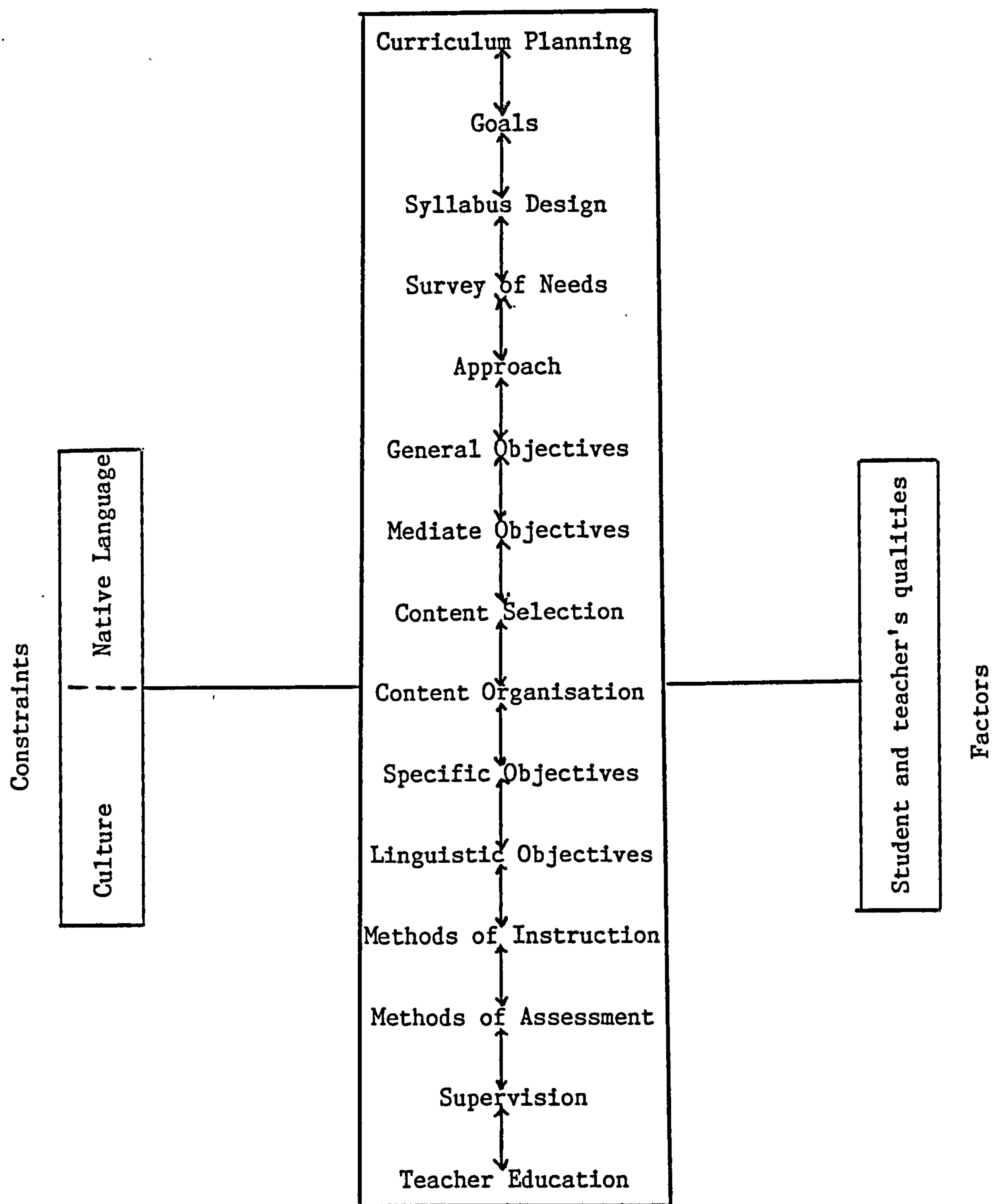
(Taba, 1962:154).

From the 'Need of Study' concerning the curriculum of English (Chapter 1): its objectives, content, methodology, assessment and supervision, it is shown that neither the material incorporated in the syllabus nor the methods of teaching the material is productive. All facets of the syllabus are deficient, frustrating and handicap any ambition to utilize English in daily-life-situations. Starting



from the goals and objectives these need to be analysed and spelt out into more tangible, immediate and manageable goals for the teacher, supervisor, student, and more roughly for the parent to follow up with his child at home. The selection and organisation of the content, as shown in the analysis of the syllabus and evidenced by the opinions of supervisors, teachers and students in this Chapter, do not meet the student needs nor do they fulfil the societal targets. Some materials need to be readjusted, but others need to be replaced. The methods of instruction and assessment suffer from these weaknesses since all aspects are interlocked and interrelated. The grammar-translation approach still dominates the atmosphere of the English class (Supervisor's and Teacher's Questionnaire). There is a common desire to change the curriculum of English put forward by students and teachers - towards real communicative approach and methods. The communicative approach to curriculum planning should take care of the needs of students, needs of society, of teachers and supervisors and of the accountable people and responsible agents. These needs should be manipulated and adjusted to form a homogeneous medium for constructing learning experiences and material. Then they should be analysed into mediate and specific objectives taking into consideration the learner's characteristics - as a human being who may live in a different culture - and the teacher's qualification and proficiency. These factors determine the type of specific and instructional objectives in the process of the pedagogy. The features of language knowledge can then be targeted in the light of the functions and notions embedded in the objectives. Figure 1 illustrates briefly the basic steps in communicative curriculum design:

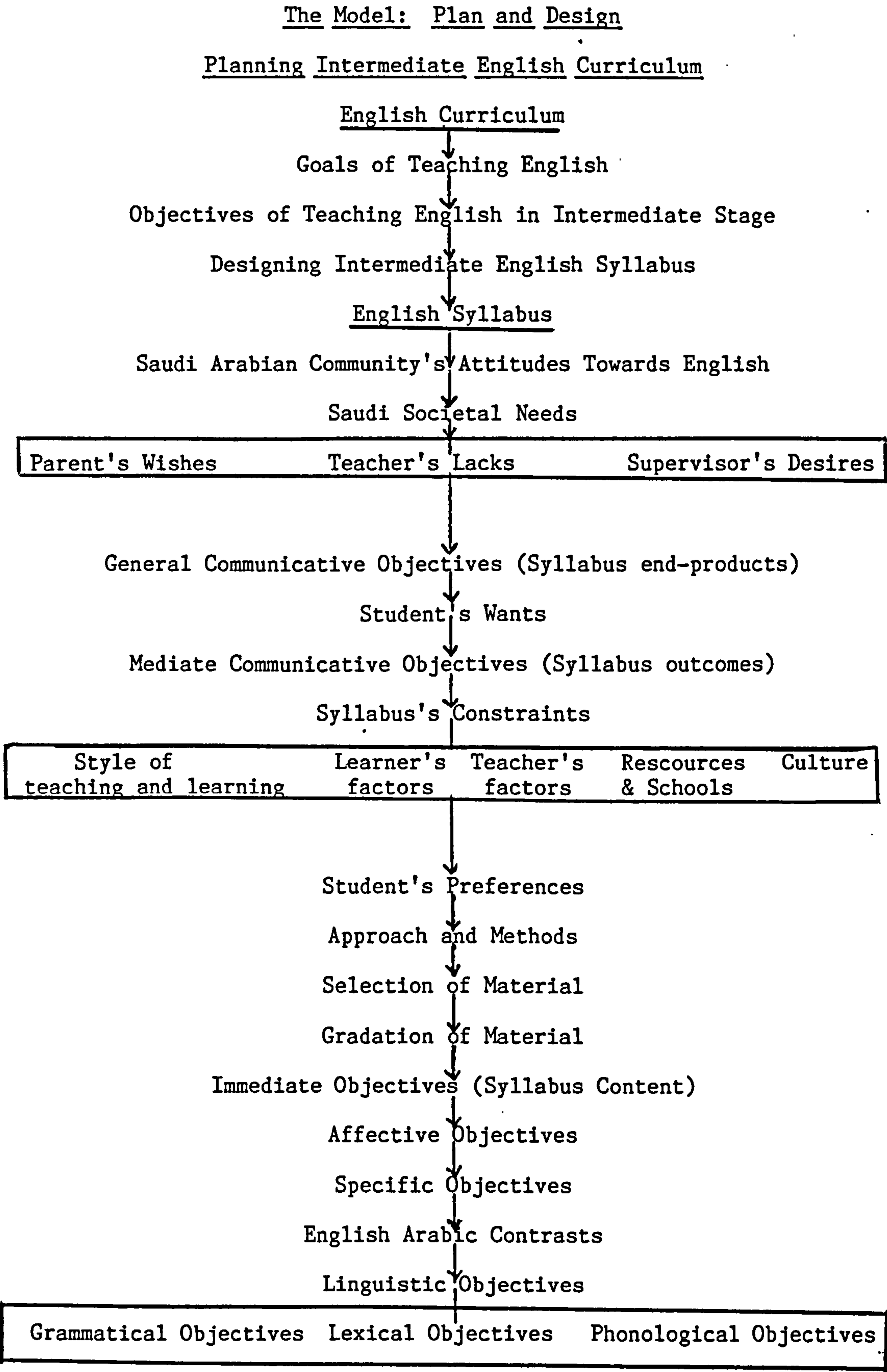
Figure .1



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **PLANNING THE INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH CURRICULUM**

Figure: 2.





## Introduction

This chapter differentiates between the process of planning the curriculum and the process of designing the syllabus of English in the intermediate stage. Syllabus is regarded as a part of a curriculum, and its shape is determined by wide guide lines which are supposed to be drawn by the curriculum (see Review of Literature).

On one hand the curriculum of English in Saudi Arabia is conceptualized by the policy of the educational system towards the purpose of teaching this language in general education. On the other hand designing a syllabus evolves, necessarily, passing through sophisticated operations which should take into account multiple factors, determinants and parameters operating as constraints on the syllabus. Such constraints work to confine or facilitate the selection and gradation of material, and the statement of the various ranks of objectives. English curriculum has not been developed properly; even those interpretations for the goals and objectives of teaching English stated by some supervisors are set paradoxically. Constructing a curriculum of English in intermediate stage is then the first step since 'a curriculum provides a statement of policy' if goals and objectives are adequately translated (Dubin and Olshtain, 1984:40).

## 4.1. English Curriculum

### Introductory

Much has been said in education about curriculum, syllabus, planning and design (Saylor, 1958; Taba, 1962; Richmond, 1971 and Holt, 1983) where they use the term 'curriculum' for the overall educational policy which orients theoretically one or all subjects in the system of education, while they use the word 'syllabus' for the content framed by the state and the implementation of that content in the light of the policy. Alternatively, planning is connected to curriculum while design is linked with syllabus (Davis, 1976). English curriculum in the Model refers to the goals of teaching English in general education which encompasses both stages intermediate and secondary and the philosophy which underlies them. However, since the curriculum here is to serve the intermediate stage only, the general objectives of teaching English in the intermediate stage should occur in this phase to map out the approach embedded in the goals and the philosophy beyond them. The outcomes would then dictate the type of English syllabus suitable for intermediate school.

Where the process of 'design' is covered by the process of plan (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986) and since the curriculum lacks proper interpretations of goals and general objectives this gives need to a new planning and new designing in English curriculum and syllabus for intermediate stage.

#### 4.1.1. Goals of Teaching English

Seven goals are set by Ministry of Education for teaching English as a subject in general education. Not all of these goals are taken from Ministry's official circulars and booklets. Some of

them are set by researchers and educationists in the field but have been referred to the Ministry of Education as a source (see Table 5).

The goals reflect the philosophy of teaching English in general education, in both stages - secondary and intermediate - as perceived to be the overall end-products of teaching the subject of English. These goals are stated in general broad terms which makes them implicit and vague, nevertheless there are some insights embedded in them concerning content, method and outcomes (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986).

The first goal which reads that "English is the language most widely used in travel around the world and in mass-media" represents a vital purpose for introducing English to the Community of Saudi Arabia. When English became the world language at the beginning of this century (Yalden, 1983) it was awarded the highest position among languages for tourism and business. This goal is one of the most prominent targets as viewed by the Higher Committee of Education in Saudi Arabia not only because it identifies one of the areas of communicative use but also because this area is closely connected with the Nation's aspirations and its future status.

The political view expressed by the second goal springs from the crucial role English plays in international meetings, conferences, conventions and diplomatic assemblies. The goal contemplates an expected outcome as well as a quality of learning:

"..... a number of Saudi students are expected to hold positions that require them to deal with English speaking-people; in this case they need good instruction in English so that they can understand the other party and whatever materials are required in their professional development".

Many purposes can also be elicited from the third goal since it describes English as 'the leading language of science, technology, education and politics, as well as business and commerce'. However,



**TABLE 5**

- "1. English is the language most widely used in travel around the world, and it is the most broadly used in mass media.**
- 2. Since Saudi Arabia has established diplomatic relations with the Western World, English must become the most important foreign language taught in all government schools. Therefore, a number of Saudi students are expected to hold positions that require them to deal with English speaking people; in this case they need good instruction in English so that they can understand the other party and whatever materials are required in their professional development.**
- 3. English is acknowledged as the leading language of science, technology, education and politics, as well as business and commerce.**
- 4. References, scientific researches and technological terms are written in English, so English should be taught to our students in order for them to comprehend what they read.**
- 5. Understanding the culture and thinking of other peoples requires us to understand the language which reflects their thoughts and ideas"**

**(AL-Kamookh, 1981:3-4)**

- 6. Developing language ability in various ways that can add to the strength of the Arabic language and help in deriving enjoyment from it and in sensing the aesthetic aspects of its style and ideas.**
- 7. Teaching the students at least another living language beside their own native one in order to allow them to enrich themselves with science, cultural affairs, arts and useful creative things and working on the conveyance of our science and intellectual achievements to their societies, thus contributing to the spread of Islam and the service of humanity."**

**(AL-Zaid, 1977:11)**



it is still expressed in a broad sense with no specification of the kinds of science, technology, education and politics required for Saudi students and identified through English. The fourth goal adds more targets by ascertaining the importance of English in reading references, scientific researches and technological books:

"References, scientific researchers and technological terms are written in English, so English should be taught to our students ...".

The fifth goal develops another type of purpose that is the grasp of culture and thought-patterns of English speaking peoples:

"Understanding the culture and thinking of other peoples ...".

The last two goals are loftier and formulated in a very broad sense:

"developing language ability in various ways that can ... help in deriving enjoyment' and 'teaching the students at least another language.... to allow them to enrich themselves with science, cultural affairs, arts..... thus contributing to the spread of Islam and the service of humanity".

There are however some implications which can be drawn from these abstract targets. The first issue is the inclusion of both types of motivation, integrative and instrumental, in the content of these goals. This would recommend both types as requisites for learning and prerequisites for each other since each one is affected by the other. The second implication is that the use of English language culture should be confined to those situations that require apparently instrumental objectives since the cultural identity of Islam should be as far as possible preserved in integrative motivation. The third implication is that priority in language learning should be given to global aspects of communication such as travel, social interaction, business dealings and diplomatic encounters.

These goals as stated before illustrate the general demands on the English language felt by the government. They reflect the aspirations and ambitions of the Country with respect to the

expansion of its economic affairs and the need for English as a business language. Higher education, on the other hand, requires considerable mastery of English in some universities and some departments. Moreover, this creates a rather 'communicative community' whose immediate role is to pave the road of official dealings with friendly communication. Nevertheless, in so far as these goals cover the wide area of general education including secondary and intermediate, they should be articulated through the general objectives stated for the intermediate stage by the Ministry to build a holistic intermediate English curriculum.

#### 4.1.2. The Statement of General Objectives

As Dubin and Olshtain stated

"A document stating national priorities usually defines goals in very broad terms, allowing for more specific decision-making to be carried out at lower levels"

(Dubin and Olshtain, 1986:24).

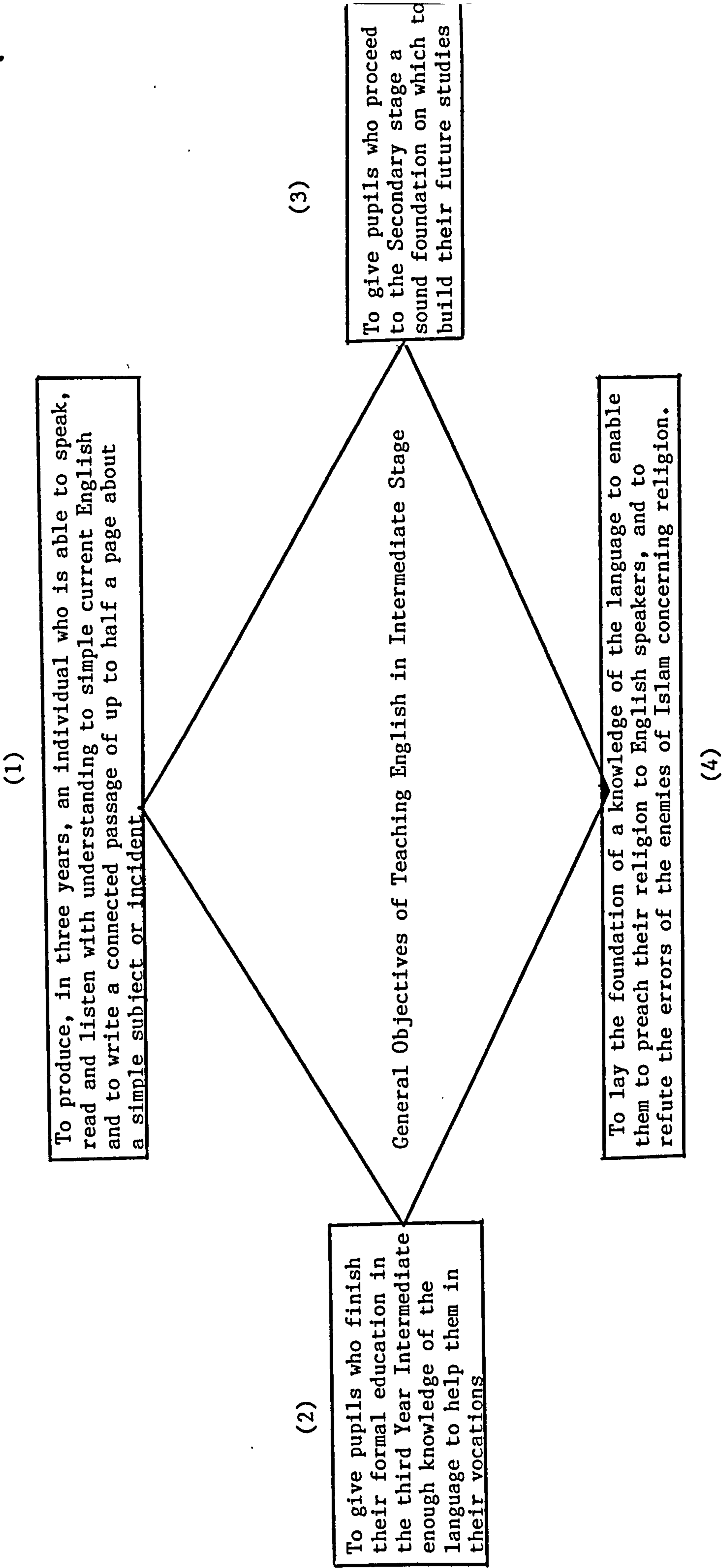
On this basis, the general objectives in the intermediate stage should be realized through the Saudi national priorities upon which needs, wants, necessities and ambitions are considered. It is widely accepted that the general reasons for incorporating any foreign language programme in a school curriculum are: to socialize students, to improve logical functioning and to prepare linguists (Biggs and Collis, 1982). Nevertheless, learning a foreign language as reported by Milne 'should be a personal experience which opens up a world of ideas, which extends the understanding of language as such, and which creates an opportunity for personal travel, for reading, for study and for relationships in English speaking countries or with English speaking visitors' (Milne - quoted in Johnson and Morrow, 1981). Four objectives are set by the Education policy for teaching English in intermediate stage, each of which

refers to an ultimate target that is to be accomplished by intermediate school students (see Figure 3). The first objective covers the mastering of the four skills of speaking, reading, listening with understanding to simple current English and writing a connected passage of up to half a page. Speaking is the first skill mentioned in this set to be developed in the curriculum in so far all languages were spoken through nearly of their history by people who did not read or write' (Bloomfield, 1971:17). Speaking is therefore assigned by the document, as by many researchers in the field (Alam, 1986; Al-Twaijri, 1981), as the primary skill which justifies its prominence in later interpretation of objectives and methodology. Nonetheless, there is no indication of the level of proficiency in speaking which ought to be the standard at intermediate level. The objective also considers the interpretative skills, listening and reading, but the skill of writing is characterized according to the standard of 'a connected passage of up to half a page'. The idea implied in the exposure of the four skills is the demand for language use rather than usage. It implies that communication should be highlighted by the curriculum.

The second objective describes English as a facilitator of vocations: 'To give pupils who finish their formal education in the Third Year Intermediate enough knowledge of the language to help them in their vocations'. The rationale behind its statement is the development era Saudi Arabia is passing through, particularly in the sectors of oil, petrochemical and some other industries which entails the birth of many companies, firms and establishments. Proficiency in English has played a distinctive role not only in developing the industries and marketing the products, but also in training manpower since most experts and engineers in those industries and companies



Figure:3.





are non-Arabic speakers. This picture is illustrated by one of the educational consultants in the Ministry of Education describing the situation:

"Due to the great expansion of oil industries, on which the economy of Saudi Arabia relies, requirements to develop a foreign language program that would train the manpower necessary to staff not only government positions but also many positions being created by the Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO) has been emphasised (ARAMCO - 1968)"  
(Alam, 1986:14).

The demand for English language has increased because industrial production requires the maintaining of contact with the world outside and communication with thousands of experts and workers admitted to the country who speak no Arabic. Rather, the need for English in vocations expands to cover a wide area of technical schools and professional institutes, i.e. health institutes, military technical institutes and Saudi Arabian Airlines institutes.

The objective suggests a purposeful language since contextualized situations occur in those vocations.

The third objective involves the strategy of starting to learn English in intermediate stage: 'to give pupils who proceed to the secondary stage a sound foundation on which to build their future studies'. The objective emphasises the vital role of English in the intermediate stage as a solid ground for proceeding to secondary grade and establishing a well firmed basis for university education. This can be warranted when reference is made to the role of English as a medium of instruction at some universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia, i.e. King Fahad University of Petroleum and Minerals and all medical and engineering colleges, after passing a one-year remedial intensive programme (Mulla, 1979). The foundation English implied in this statement suggests general communication as a prerequisite for proper progress to the advanced stages. It is widely accepted by

pioneers in the field (Morrow and Johnson, 1981; Yalden, 1983; Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983) that general communication is much more attractive to and easy for beginners especially if they are children or adolescents. Furthermore, general communication is a prerequisite for any interactional situations which might be called for by educational, vocational, commercial or diplomatic contacts in the future. Communication is also proposed by many writers to be the backbone of any social, official or business dealings because it:

- takes place in discourse and social cultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances.
- always has a function i.e. to inquire, to express, to identify, to disagree, which serve as preludes for further functions in later stage of interactions (Canale, 1983).

The last objective expresses the responsibility granted to Saudi Arabia as the centre of the Islamic World and its effective duty in preserving the doctrine of Islam by propagating its message all over the world among non-Arabic as well as Arabic speakers:

'To lay the foundation of a knowledge of English so that later they can acquire sufficient grasp of the language to enable them to preach their religion to English speakers, and to refute the errors of the enemies of Islam concerning religion'. Since English is today's world language, it is necessary for Saudis to learn it in order to carry out their duties. The premise is the hosting of millions of pilgrims each year from different countries, speaking a large number of languages, English therefore is a very prominent tool in making this huge gathering understand each other (Al-Shammari, 1984). Such an objective dictates to a student a command of some religious principles concerning Islam and preaching it in English.

These, then are the main purposes of learning English in intermediate stage. Four functions are manifested in these statements: social communication, pursuing education, preparing for vocations and preaching Islam.

#### 4.1.3. Attitudes of Saudi Community towards English

The various roles English plays in Saudi society have been cited earlier. English plays a very distinctive role at the level of individuals - as a means of communication inside and outside the country, and as a means for achieving academic and educational targets. On the level of national policy English is considered as the medium for most diplomatic relations in addition to its role in importing modern technology into the society. Arabic, on the other hand, is regarded as the language of the Holy Book: Koran, which should be honoured and respected (Joy, 1985). Such esteem towards Arabic - the vernacular - is not unreasonable since the language has retained its present form for more than 2,000 years and is now being recited by six hundred million Muslims all over the world most of whom are non-Arabs (Smith, 1987). Therefore, it is not surprising to see that "any effort the foreigner makes to use Arabic will be received enthusiastically and create a lot of goodwill" (Campbell, 1983:16). Nevertheless, this would not contradict the position of English in so far as it is learned as a foreign language to achieve specific national and societal purposes.

The attitudes of Saudi Arabs towards English language, people and culture are neutral since Saudi Arabia has never ever been occupied by any colonising power; thus people are preserved from some kinds of prejudice. This warrants English to be seen not as the language of imperialism, nor are English teachers viewed as agents



working to maintain its ideology (IATEFL, No. 29, 1986:3). From the various and multitudinous targets mentioned explicitly in the students' assessments of needs, English can be said to be the second language which government and individual's requirements depend on. Furthermore, learning a foreign language is religiously appreciated by Muslims as following their Prophet's advice to learn a language additional to their own.

Concerning English speaking peoples, Saudis have positive attitudes towards Americans and British.

Joy, during teaching in Saudi Arabia has noticed that:

"Saudis have rather positive attitudes towards Americans and most Westerners ..... Saudis regard Americans and the British as hard workers who tend to get the job done"  
(Joy, 1985:40).

The culture of English language is viewed critically by the Community of Saudi Arabia since many of its aspects go against the Community's own culture and are considered taboos. What is more, some English language modes and manners of behaviour contravene Saudi's Islamic moral philosophy and ethics which call for adaptation to accommodate the local situations. These cultural differences might cause some negative attitudes towards the language, notwithstanding the strong needs of English to facilitate their adjustments.



## 4.2. English Syllabus

### Introductory

According to what has been argued in the preceding section, the type of English syllabus recommended by the curriculum is functional/communicative. It is decided to be functional because learners are expected to carry out certain functions as to: preach Islam, to undertake certain skills in English in order to carry on education, to operate in particular technical situations. Communication, as a purpose, is also revealed in the first statement as a social interaction, and hidden in the last statement as a means of intercourse with pilgrims.

This chapter demonstrates the process of construction and design of English syllabus in the intermediate stage. It starts with the community attitude towards English followed by targets perceived by parents, teachers and supervisors of English, which are regarded as input to allow wise selection and organisation of learning material, experiences and teaching aids (Davies, 1976). The outcomes of these needs would determine the approach, which in turn, suggests the broad objectives of the syllabus. The general objectives of the syllabus are going to be analysed into mediate objectives taking into account the exigencies of the students. In order to bring the mediate objectives to further analysis the content should be first selected and then graded. On the other hand, there are some constraints which are to be considered in this part of the operation such as: styles of teaching and learning, teacher and learners as factors, the resources available and Saudi Arabian culture. Such parameters contribute to the conduct of the syllabus transaction. Selection and gradation of learning material must not ignore the audience's

preferences. Affective objectives are set to be achieved by students as well as teachers in order to promote fulfilling the performance objectives (Vallette and Disick, 1968). Specific objectives are finally set in terms of student immediate behaviours. The communicative sense they give distinguishes them from linguistic objectives which are set in terms of language segments: grammatical objectives, lexical objectives and pronunciation objectives.

#### 4.2.1. Saudi Societal Needs

Saylor and his co-authors indicated that "community involvement in curriculum development is endorsed in principle, by educators and laymen" (Saylor et al, 1954:102). Yet the controversial matter is how deep can professional and layman involvement be and what effect can each of them have in the process of design. The balance seems to be the main point arising from the meeting of learner's needs with social needs. If emphasis is put on community's needs, the syllabus will not be effective insofar as it utterly overlooks the personal needs which inhibit a learner's development. Equally if too much attention is given to learner's needs there is the problem of losing the unique principle of organisation of targets and content (Wheeler, 1976).

Need is defined by a dictionary as 'a state of urgently requiring something' or 'lack of something'. Needs in this part are divided into three distinctive terms playing three different roles in the statement of objectives, selection and gradation of material. These will be described as parent's wishes, teacher's lacks, supervisor's desires which take part in the determination of syllabus approach and the formulation of syllabus' objectives.

#### 4.2.1.1. Parent's Wishes

Parents represent the societal overall powers since they personify the home community of the student where he can participate in activities requiring the use of English (Mackay and Palmer, 1969). (See Chapter 2: Curriculum Design - Review of Literature.) The wishes of parents are clarified as the needs determined by the target situation which the parent feels necessary for his son-student to undertake. Some of these wishes are of immediate concern to parents and family; others will contribute later.

From the parent's questionnaire plenty of wishes come up as parent's urgent needs for English. They are synthesised to illustrate the major ambitions and demands required by parents. Seven of these wishes are indentified, most of which relate to daily life use of English:

- (1) Our sons in intermediate stage should deal with scientific, English .
- (2) They need English to read the instructions of electrical appliances and their use and operation, e.g. TV, washing-machine.
- (3) They should have some knowledge about medicine: names and instruction of use.
- (4) They may need to read the ingredients of some tinned food or drinks as we have some restricted law of Islam when dealing with such matters.
- (5) Our sons should have a good grasp of English which enables them to seek medical assistance and deal with any matter concerning doctors or hospitals if a need arises for seeking such treatment abroad.
- (6) They should be able to communicate with customers who speak English, translate and write business letters, telegraphs and telex as well.
- (7) Some international calls come from abroad concerning business so that we need our sons to help us in responding and translating them.

The three skills of reading, listening and speaking for spontaneous interaction in everyday contexts are highlighted in this



scheme in as much as they fulfil the needs of parents. The skill of writing may not have such immediate importance since few of them referred to writing functions in their Questionnaire response. Education on the other hand, is given by parents as an important motive to learn English. They feel that advanced levels of education need English whether in secondary school or university studies. Pursuing technical or vocational education of any type is deemed by parents to need English.

#### 4.2.1.2. Teacher's Lacks

A Lack is defined as a gap between the target proficiency and the existing one (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). The teacher's ability and willingness to project a new syllabus are important.

Dubin and Olshtain point out:

"The teacher population is the most significant factor in determining success of a new syllabus or material. The attitudes of the teachers and their abilities to adjust to new thinking and what 'it' involves in practical terms are crucial"

(Dubin and Olshtain, 1986:31).

Nevertheless, the role of the teacher in syllabus construction is debated by some writers in the field. They argue that the teacher should be primarily concerned with the route but not with the process of design (Krashen, 1981; Terrell, 1982; Gensee, 1983), and that the contribution of the language teacher is limited to the part he plays in the classroom as a director, an encourager, an orientor or interlocutor of student's activities and interaction. This view derives from the conception that syllabus is methodology and techniques whereas the process of design is more connected to construction and planning (Savignon, 1983). The advocates of this notion are those who proclaim the fully communicative syllabus, i.e. natural syllabus (Terrell, Krashen), task-based syllabus (Widdowson and Prabhu) and negotiated syllabus (Carroll, Holec). On the other



hand, teacher participation in syllabus design is seen as important in providing necessary information about activities and clear dimensions for communicative realms:

"At least for now, society expects teachers to be able to describe and justify objectives in terms of language behaviour at the point of exit from a course or courses. Teachers are accountable, learners want to know where they are going"

(Yalden, 1987:74)

Lacks reported in the teacher's Questionnaire are less helpful than those from parents. Eighteen of them are listed in Table 6.

Some lacks are functionally stated with equal attention to the four skills, e.g. 'for travelling', 'to communicate with foreigners', 'to carry out some daily needs'. (Some alternatively are nationally screened such as: 'to express himself in a situation', while others turn to the need of English for further education and future careers. The gaps identified by the teachers do not help in particularizing student specific performances, but are useful in identifying general areas of language such as: 'for understanding TV programmes'. On this basis, it can be said that in spite of the general and sweeping statements of needs put by the teachers, they are indicators of English to serve definite communicative purposes. Education and vocation are therefore to be considered as reasons for learning English, but secondary in importance to communicative purposes. In other words English in intermediate should be primarily considered for communication with some concern for educational and vocational English.

**TABLE 6**

- (1) How a pupil expresses himself in a situation.
- (2) To understand and be understood.
- (3) To enable the public to communicate in simple English with foreigners.
- (4) To enable the pupils to write in English.
- (5) To think about English as an international language.
- (6) To carry out some of the daily needs.
- (7) To pass exams.
- (8) For further education.
- (9) For travelling outside Saudi Arabia
- (10) For understanding TV programmes
- (11) To develop reading skill.
- (12) To develop speaking skill.
- (13) To develop listening skill.
- (14) To develop writing skill.
- (15) To prepare for professional courses
- (16) English knowledge is necessary to deal with foreigners whether they are friends or enemies, businessmen or tourist in the Kingdom or abroad.
- (17) Giving an idea about the English society's culture.
- (18) Paving the way for a new stage.

#### 4.2.1.3. Supervisors' Desires

Subject matter supervisors' participation is of great weight in devising any school syllabus insofar as they are viewed as

'scholars in the appropriate subject fields'

(Saylor et al, 1954:166).

Supervisors of English in Saudi Arabia are involved in the process of design in as much as education is centrally managed. As stated by a team of English supervisors in Saudi Arabia 'The importance of supervision to any discipline, in this case to teaching of the English language, is as necessary as the teaching process itself' (AL-Habeeb, 1981). Nevertheless, all studies conducted in the past (AL-Habeeb, 1981; AL Ahyadib, 1986) and this study (see Data Analysis and Interpretation - Supervisors' Questionnaire) show that supervisors of English have never been consulted in any programme design, nor do they give their desires, wishes or comments on any single stage of development.

A desire is defined as a 'request or thing that is wished'. Eight desires were elicited by the supervisors' Questionnaire.

Supervisors' desires support the wishes and lacks already reported by parents and teachers. Some of these desires are not very different from parent's wishes and teacher's lacks as in 'expressing selves in English fluently to speak, read, listen and write good English' (see Table 7). Such purposes are put under the umbrella of English for general communication. On the other hand, an emphasis is also put on reading skill so as to enable the student to read references or simplified books which can be needed in advanced levels of education. Some topics of reading and writing are also cited by supervisors, e.g. short stories, dialogues - for reading, letters and paragraphs - for writing.

**TABLE 7**

- (1) Students need English to communicate easily in English.
- (2) To read simplified English books and short stores.
- (3) To express themselves in spoken English with ease and fluency.
- (4) To be able to speak, read and listen with understanding to simple current English and to write a connected passage about a simple subject or incident.
- (5) To gain enough knowledge of the language to help them to proceed to the secondary stage thereby laying the foundation on which they build their future studies.
- (6) To write paragraphs, letters and dialogues.
- (7) To listen with understanding to English spoken in a normal way.
- (8) To write simply, clearly and accurately.



#### 4.2.2. Communicative General Objectives

Malinowski (1983) distinguishes six types of language use namely: pragmatic, narrative, ritual, scholaristic, theological and scientific (Malinowski in Yalden, 1983). On the other hand, the functions served by the language constitute the source of communicative outcomes of the language particularly if these functions are wide enough to comprehend different types of language use (van Ek, 1976). Two sorts of functions are often identified, viz. macro and micro functions. Macro-functions refer to three main functions which are thought to be the chief domain of language:

1. descriptive: when language can be used to convey factual information.
2. expressive: when language is used to impart information about the speaker: likes, dislikes and feelings.
3. social: when language establishes and maintains social relationships between people.

(Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistic,  
Richards and others, 1985)

Halliday (1975) referred to these dimensions as: textual, ideational and interpersonal. In his Threshold Levels for the Council of Europe, Van Ek stated six functions of language that should be attained by learners in order to 'use' the foreign language. These six functions are:

- "1. imparting and seeking factual information.
2. expression and finding out intellectual attitudes.
3. expressing and finding out emotional attitudes.
4. expressing and finding out moral attitudes.
5. getting things done.
6. socializing."

(Van Ek, 1976:25)

Van Ek's six functions are represented by Finocchiaro's five dimensions of language functions, i.e. personal, interpersonal, directive, referential and imaginative (Finocchiaro and Brumfit,

1983:55). Brumfit in his criticism of the Bangalore Project implies some functions of language in his words when he says:

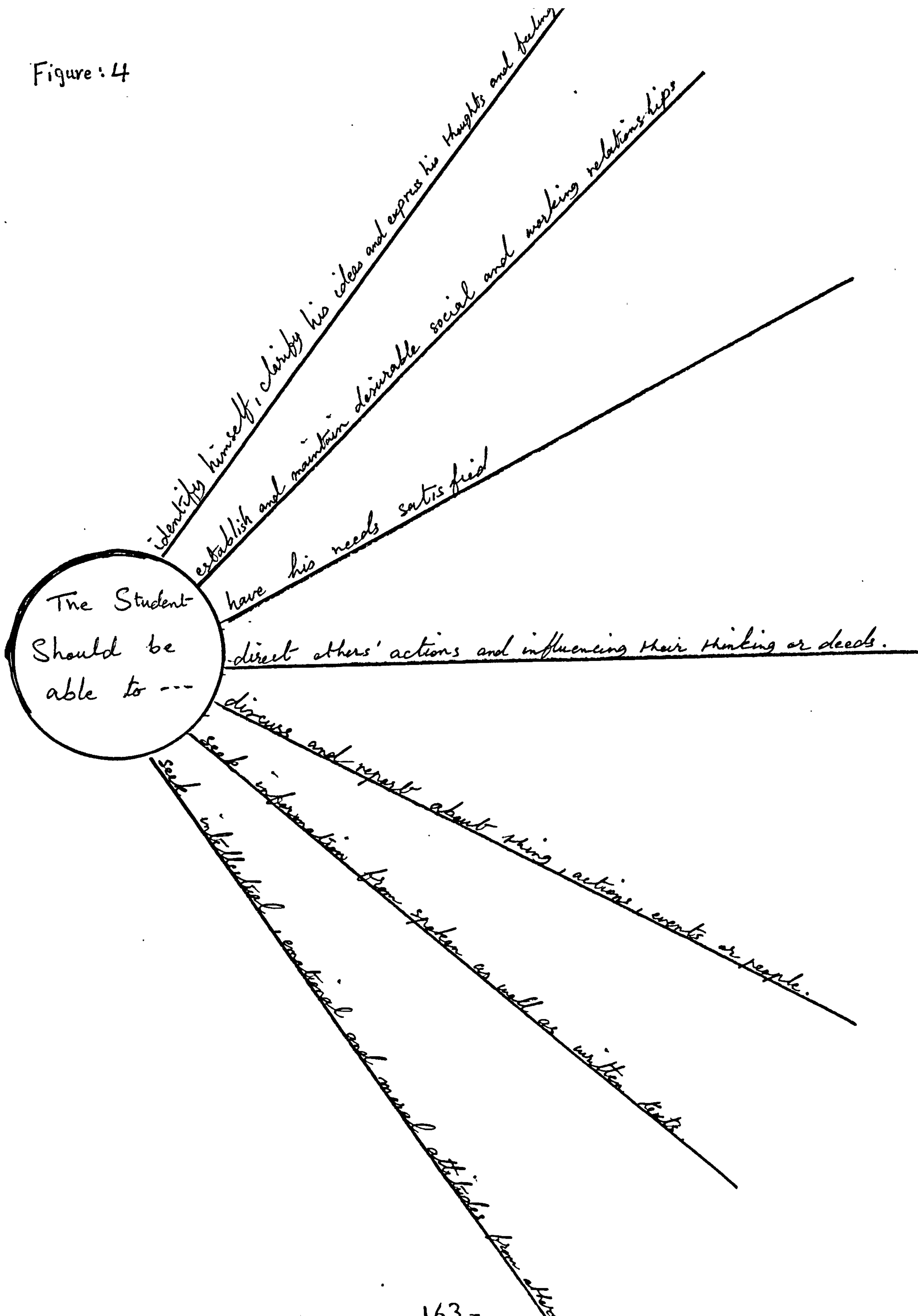
"We use language to express ourselves, to relate ourselves to our environment, to get things done which we want to get done, to assist others to understand things that we want them to understand"

(Brumfit, 1984: 110)

There seems to be an agreement among scholars in the field on the functions a language performs and the environmental dimensions in which it operates in order to supply societal as well as individual needs. The two frames of functions by Van Ek and Finocchiaro are selected as a source for stating the general objectives for the intermediate English syllabus. The feasibility of both projects has been argued by some writers; however they are still found to be more comprehensive and practical to draw sequential levels of objectives and specific objectives from than others (Shaw, 1976; Munby, 1978 and Wilkin, 1978). Accordingly, seven general communicative objectives are mapped out in Figure 4 to express the needs of Saudi community and implement the goals and objectives set by the policy for the curriculum.

The first communicative objective projects the learner as a member of the target community. The identity of the foreign language learner is best personalized when he can identify himself in the target language (Johnson and Morrow, 1981). Socializing with another member of the community is the second objective stated. Establishing and maintaining social and working relationships are necessary functions for zero-beginners to promote preliminary communication. The focus in the first two objectives would be on aural-oral skills for their important role in oral communication. The third objective comes after the student is to have a foundation knowledge of communication. The target student will need to get things done, to

Figure : 4





satisfy his basic living needs. The third objective, therefore, fulfils the immediate needs of learners as far as language is seen as a means to achieve personal ends. The fourth objective completes the preliminary social relationship by influencing the thinking and deeds of others according to the speaker's knowledge. Communication, in this phase, is passing through more serious and complicated interactions since both the speaker and interlocutor negotiate in English to satisfy one another. This process deliberates and meets the emotional atmosphere for better communication.

Describing things, people or actions and reporting events is the fifth target which creates a sort of confidence in the student's command of English. In other words, objects, people, actions or events are more tangible and direct to students as they touch their own culture and environment. A variety of meta-linguistic functions and situations are likely to be set under this objective depending on the student's level - intermediate 1st, 2nd or 3rd grade (Salemi Forum, Vol 23/2 1985). The sixth objective concerns the academic and vocational purposes intended by the policy. Reading and listening are highlighted at this point to allow a wide range of target material to be learned and acquired. These interpretive skills are necessary for attaining foreseeable professional objectives either by reading or listening to text or only listening and carrying out certain tasks. The last objective considers the most complex part in the process of communication: that is 'seeking intellectual, emotional and moral attitudes from others'. The expansion of communicative interaction requires rather sophisticated rhetorical skills of eliciting and internalizing information sought. Seeking intellectual, emotional and moral attitudes involves a tremendous number of functions and settings and covers most advanced



communication. The degree of its complexity depends, also, on the stage of learning that is reached by the candidate (Van Ek, 1976).

These are, in brief, the communicative general objectives set for intermediate English syllabus. They are recognised as a means and as ends; a means for those pursuing their further education, and ends for those who stop in intermediate stage and leave. A strategy devised for this course must meet two sets of criteria.

"If English as an additional language is taught starting in junior high school, for instance, it may be necessary to specify the objectives for those finishing junior high and leaving school, as well as for those continuing with their studies. These would then be intermediate objectives for some students and terminal ones for others."

(Dubin and Olshtain, 1986:25).

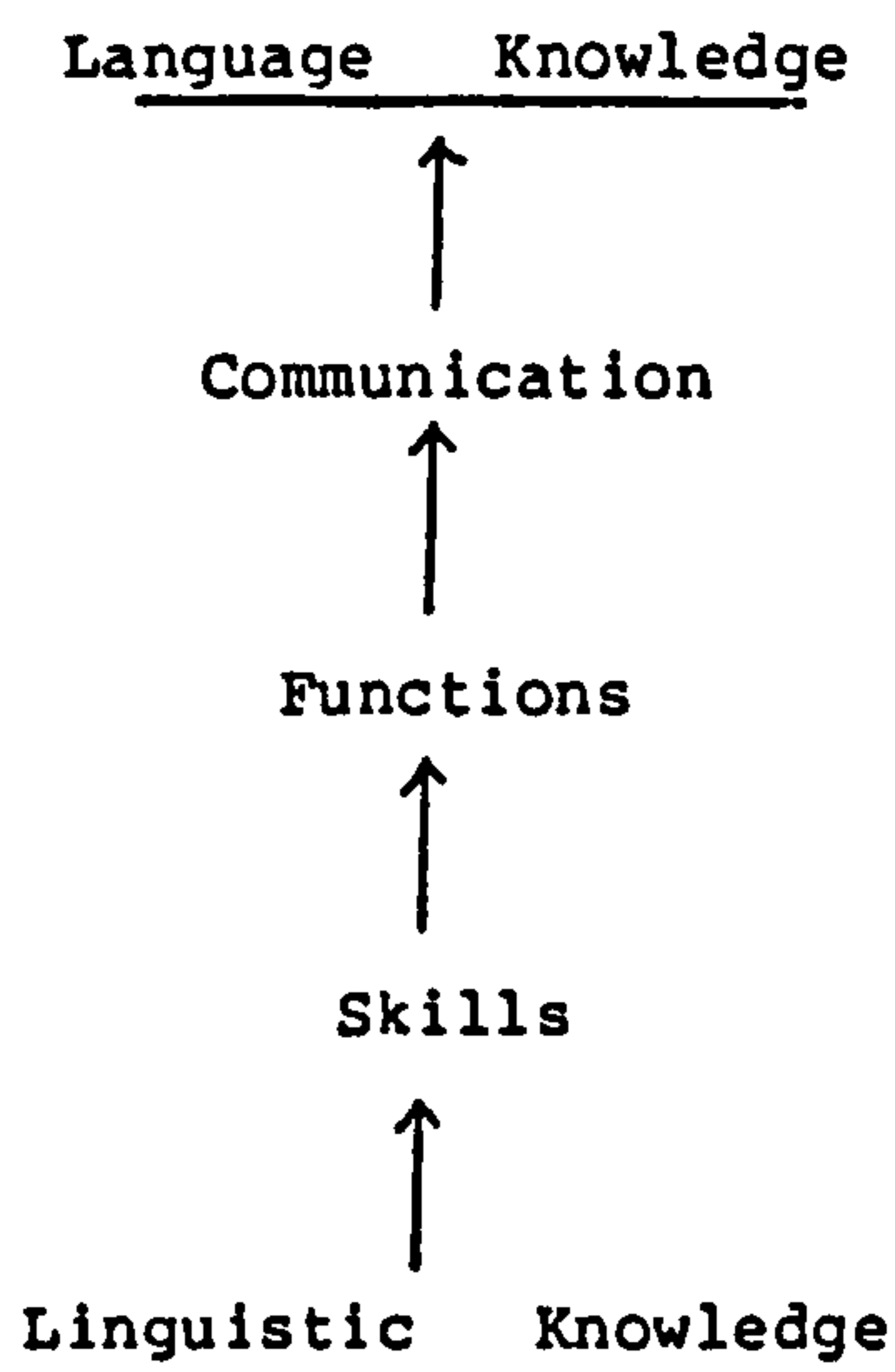
Functions implied by these objectives might include hundreds of situations each of which requires a number of settings, but a selection can be chosen on socio-cultural criteria and in accordance with students' interests. Finally, consideration is drawn to the four 'skills' rather than 'knowledge' of English as those are expected to express the functional needs of Saudi Community as well as to meet the goals and objectives of the Ministry of Education (Stern, 1983).

#### 4.2.3. Students Wants and Stating Intermediate Objectives

Going back to what has been said in the Review of Literature (Ch. 2) and in Data Investigation (Ch.4) the general needs of intermediate school student should influence the selection of some objectives in the lower levels, particularly of intermediate and immediate ones (Mackay and Palmer, 1969). At the level of intermediate objectives the data collected from students can be used to help both in the selection of objectives and in the formulating and elaborating of these objectives. Data Investigation shows that the

top three general purposes which received major support from the student-sample were: English for travelling, English for pursuing education and English for getting a job. These ultimate outcomes draw the broad picture of the students' overall needs. 'English for travelling' was selected by a huge majority of respondents - more than 95% - and implies a variety of functions that should be carried out in order to achieve the objective. The other two purposes, also, call for English to undertake certain functions necessary for students' foreseeable academic and vocational needs. Certain skills are inevitable in working out the communicative functions in 'travelling' and their critical importance in bringing about specialised functions in 'education and profession' is also clear. The emphasis, on this basis, is put on skills of the language rather than linguistic knowledge, but the latter is embedded in the former. Figure 5 describes the relationship between language, skills, functions and communication.

Figure 5



Skills are used to fulfil certain functions, these functions lead to communication; on the other hand, skills are a means to communication that cannot appear purposefully without the linkage of functions. From this standpoint general communicative objectives of the syllabus are translated into mediate objectives in terms of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, each of which encompasses an enormous number of functions and activities. The scheme of mediate objectives (see Appendix I.1.) is derived from the communicative general objectives in the light of students' exigencies. These wants are listed in terms of speaking, listening, reading and writing since they are the four main pillars of communicative language teaching. Some of the additional examples merely restate what was offered in the Questionnaire but the novel ones are useful in characterizing the objectives in this level. Some examples of these later wants are 'preaching Islam' and 'Saudi Arabia' (speaking), 'football match commentaries'. 'engineering programmes' (listening), 'English proverbs, phone directories' (reading), and 'jokes, memoranda' (listening). There are as a matter of fact, much more wants than those listed above, but as Corder says:

"any syllabus is bound, therefore, to be something of compromise"

(Corder, 1973:322).

The students' most common wants and needs from the language have, therefore, been selected to help specify mediate objectives.

Most weight in the mediate scheme is put on 'speaking' as it is the most urgent and spontaneous mode for holding and carrying out human communication. Accordingly, twenty-two mediate objectives are listed under this skill reflecting most functions inherent in the general communicative objectives. Socializing is pre-eminent for the socio-cultural contexts it supplies especially in face-to-face



communication. This is followed by describing and reporting items due to their centrality in providing access to the acquisition of the meta-linguistic aspects of English. Educational and vocational targets can be met by this objective in describing parts of an object or reporting a series of actions.

Fifteen objectives are set in this respect to develop the aural ability of the students. The main criterion underlying the listening objectives is the use of authentic and ready-taped material. Such material is expected to offer a chance of better practice for candidates since they learn English outside its original Community by non-native teachers. What is more, objectives for listening stated in this form are intended to guide the development of listening test items and mark out the criteria on which students/assessment can be based. Due to the discrete status of reading and writing, their intensive use is delayed to a later stage of intermediate - second and third grades - but their actual use starts from the first moment of the language-class (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973:119). Reading activities are receptive, more related to listening interpretive tasks, and functions are manipulated orally as well as literarily. Ten objectives are set for 'reading', mostly dealing with real-life situations, i.e. reading signs, notices in squares, streets, local newspaper, instructions for use on bottles of medicine, and so on. The Syllabus book's texts and passages can be used to develop both the subsidiary skills of reading sounds, meaning, symbol, experiences and the various types of reading: scanning, speed or extensive. The authentic material in booklets, notices and newspapers reinforces what has been taught in the texts and passages and brings the student into closer contact with the life situations where language is employed.



Ten writing objectives are stated at the end of this scheme on terms of communicative needs. Some are academic: 'to extract small passages', 'to write dialogue', some are religious: 'to explain a few verses of Koran and Hadeeth', but most of them carry out certain functions and deal with applicable situations in everyday life, i.e. 'to write personal and business letters, to write a cheque, to fill gaps and slips'.

All these functions are integrated, even those which have discrete characteristics, in order to maintain effective communication or what de Saussure refers to as 'parole'. Where elements of English or 'langue' are supposed to serve 'parole'. a better time for them to appear is when means and ends are settled. It should be noted that both statements of objectives, general and communicative, are concerned with the end-products of the intermediate stage. While the outcomes of the mediate objectives are functional, the end-products of the general objectives are communicative (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986). Finally functional and communicative purposes are laid down in terms of the four skills. Subskills are manipulated in further stages of analysis of objectives when syllabus constraints and other factors are introduced.

#### 4.2.4. Syllabus Constraints

Designing any school syllabus requires much effort in order to investigate the components and facets which influence the statement of objectives and the process of selection and gradation of material (Saylor , 1954). Richards points out:

"Planning a successful language program involves consideration of factors that go beyond the mere content and presentation of teaching materials."

(Richard, 1985:11)

There are in fact, a large number of parameters which

interrelate and interfere, negatively or positively, in the map of design (Littlewood, 1984). Some of them facilitate the process of selection and gradation of material whereas others impede it; both types should be taken into consideration. (See Review of Literature: "Curriculum Planning and Syllabus Design" Chp.2). Five constraints are deemed to be of direct influence on the procedures of intermediate English syllabus design. Their effect is more clearly seen in the selection and gradation of material than in the statement of immediate and specific objectives.

#### 4.2.4.1. The Style of Teaching and Learning

Learning a second or foreign language has been pedagogically shifted from the longstanding teacher-centred to learner-centred instruction a long time before the Monitor Model, but Krashen (1981) gave rise to some factors that have been ignored. Many studies have been recently conducted showing evidence of better learning by student-centred instruction if suitable circumstances are offered. The actual movement started after the II World War when Chomsky (1965) argued that the input material in foreign language learning may minimize the chances of learning. He saw the input as an operator to enhance effective interaction and consequently the acquisition of the language. This view originated more than half a century ago when 'the language teachers are no longer seen exclusively as individuals who hold and transmit language (like any other teacher), but as people who assist the learner to develop a natural capacity to communicate in another language' (Yalden, 1987: 51). Contemporary findings of Brown (1968) and Wells (1979) challenge what Chomsky said that the input of contextual material is important even for naturalistic interaction among the students themselves and between them and the teachers (in Ellis, 1984). On the

other hand, the sort of teaching which fits the young child may not suit an adult because of the diversity in characteristics which qualify both phases of learning (Strevens, 1977). It does not follow that learners vary in everyday approaches to learning; on the contrary there are some generic qualities which are believed to be common to all learners in any given stage of learning.

Education in Saudi Arabia is very structured as is the case in most Arab and Asian countries (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1987). English is one of the school subjects and it is no different in this respect.

Joy describes the problem by saying:

".... the teacher in an authoritarian and disciplinarian role, and the students learning largely through rote memorization. To a large degree, this is still the case in Saudi Arabia, and English teachers trained in other methods often feel the impact of tradition and resistance when they try out new ways".

(Joy, 1985:32)

Unfortunately, the current syllabus could not modify the traditional role played by the teacher neither could it decrease the domination by him of the English class. (The Current Syllabus of English, Ch.3). The grammar translation method is still followed by most English teachers interchangeably with the direct method, both of which offer little chance for students to participate (Dr. Mushtaq Interview). Many researchers also admit the traditional character of teaching/learning English in Saudi Arabia; for example AL-Taurjriwho states:

"it has been the habit of the great majority of the English language teachers in Saudi schools to play a dominant role in the classroom in front of generally passive audiences."

(AL-Twajri, 1982)

The most graphic picture of teaching/learning style can be found in AL-Kamookh's words:

"In the English classroom in Saudi schools, the teacher has traditionally played the dominant role, presenting his lessons by means of lectures. Seldom has there been a



real, free conversational exchange between teacher and student, and almost never between students".

(AL-Kamookh, 1981).

Two points can be made from these quotations; the first is that the participation of the students in English class

"was very little due to the dominant role that the teachers played in classrooms. Second there was an emphasis on memorization instead of understanding".

(AL-Ahaydib, 1986:121).

The live lesson, recorded in the observations (Data Investigation, Ch 4), illustrates the point that nearly all of the talking is done by the teacher. Students' amount of time does not go beyond twenty percent of the total period time.

Since the syllabus selected for the English Curriculum is communicative in that functions determined by the societal as well as students' needs are the real immediate needs for teaching/learning English, interaction is a crucial force for that communication. To achieve a high level of efficient interaction the atmosphere of the class should be changed from a teacher-centred style to a proportional style where both teacher and his students share in the interactive situations. The proportional style would create the emotional atmosphere necessary to develop confidence and security in learners' behaviours and activities. Rivers comments on this:

"Teacher-directed and -dominated classrooms cannot, by their nature be interactive classrooms and this is what language teachers need to learn. Interaction can be two-way, three-way, or four-way, but never one-way."

(Rivers, 1987:9)

The style of teaching suggested for the new syllabus is a mixture of view-listening, discussion-questioning, groupings and lecturing. It is commonly agreed among the sample-teachers in the Data Investigation that view-listening style should be most important for first grade learners, but is used in company with discussion-questioning, while in the second grade 'groupings' and 'discussion-



questioning' are more convenient for the notions and structures of English which are likely to be introduced in this stage. 'Groupings' is employed along with 'lecturing' as students go through this phase. In 'view-listening' the activities of the student range from very passive in the first hours of learning English as in viewing pictures, sights or video-tape, listening to tapes, to very active at the end of the first term when view-listening is replaced by discussion-questioning. The activities of the teacher vary considerably from arranging cassettes or video-tapes for listening or viewing to demonstrating wall-charts and pictures. In discussion-questioning the teacher-pupil interaction is rather structured by the textbooks' input, but opportunities are given for both interlocutors to make innovations. Although the teacher controls the instructional situations, chances are still available for students to interact and inquire freely (Brumfit, 1984). Lecturing is often used for introducing fresh information or describing a new situation which calls for note-taking. This skill is expected to be acquired properly in the late period of studying, and the third grade is the best time to introduce a lecturing style (Saylor et al, 1954). There may be some viewing along with the three other styles as a supplement demonstrating what the teacher says and reads. Where English is taught in intermediate school as a compulsory subject instruction is highly formal yet it should not prevent the language teacher referring to the nature of his subject matter - from relaxing the atmosphere in the instructional circuit by accepting

'all kinds of opinions, and be tolerant of errors the student makes while attempting to communicate'

(Rivers, 1987:9).

#### 4.2.4.2. Learner's factors

Learning a foreign language presupposes a complex of particular characteristics and traits which should qualify the learner's personal targets and devise his approach towards learning (Richard, 1985). There are a number of factors which interrelate, contribute to and interfere in mastering English as a foreign language. These factors can be set into two main groups:

- i. internal (or stable) variables relate to the learner's own characteristics - Strevens (1977) calls them 'static qualities'. These include student's age, potential for learning languages, aptitude, intelligence, learning stamina, experience of other foreign or second languages and background knowledge in English.
- ii. external (or moving) variables relate to the manageability of learning and are called dynamic qualities by Streven. External qualities include attitudes towards English, motivation and student-teacher relation.

#### i) Internal factors:

##### 1. Age:

It is one of the effective variables interrelating learning in general and foreign language learning in particular:

"the learner's age determines the type of learning that takes place and the teaching that is appropriate to that kind of learning".

(Strevens, 1977:18)

The intermediate school candidates are adolescents aged between 13 and 15. Their main characteristics in learning a foreign language are the easiness of learning by imitation but slowing down by failure and buoying up by success. In one extreme they tend to learn by games and are not afraid of making mistakes, on

the other extreme they are not able to perceive the ultimate targets of learning (Strevens, 1977).

2. Potential for language learning: This can be realized in terms of abilities and defects which characterize the learner's behaviour in his reacting with the language. It is assumed that learners everywhere who can acquire their mother-tongue are likely to be able to learn a foreign language. The intermediate school students seem to be potentially ready to learn English as far as they have been acquiring and learning Arabic (Igra's, 1985). There is not sufficient evidence available of the abilities and defects which qualify or disqualify students in intermediate level, however, the only evidence is the six years of study of Arabic in elementary school.

3. Aptitude:

It is the natural readiness to learn a language which embodies a number of abilities such as the ability to listen to a foreign language sounds, identify and store them in memory and finally recall them when required, the ability to comprehend the different kinds of rules which govern the grammatical functions and the ability to infer the rules which guide the use of words and constructions of contexts. Carroll addresses five abilities as components of foreign language aptitude. His scheme of abilities begins with the ability to process auditory material over a long span for use later on, the ability to observe the relationships among words-functions, the ability to memorize paired associations, and ends with verbal intelligence and the ability to induce the grammatical



rules and properties of a language (J.B. Carroll, 1977). Mulla in his experimental study on some of the secondary senior students verified a strong correlation between aptitude for learning English on one side and measures of attitude, motivation, age, family's knowledge of English and previous Arabic language level on the other. He found that there were several features of students' orientation towards English that could be encouraged and that did increase the level of success which they would attain in English. Its face validity can be identified by such factors as age, potentiality of learning, attitudes and motivation, but its empirical validity has not been proved yet since all studies held in the past investigated the academic components only, and overlooked the communicative and social aspects.

#### 4. Learning Stamina:

It is concerned with age and its connection with brain processes. Young learners have shorter attention-span than older (Stevens, 1977). The target group of the new syllabus is supposed to be quickly fatigued and easily bored especially in the first grade intermediate.

#### 5. Experience of other foreign languages:

It is widely believed that experience of a second language can help in learning a third language (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973). This is supported by Stevens

"each additional foreign language learned presents a lighter learning load than the previous one"

(Stevens, 1977:44).

The Data Investigation shows that most of the students (76.3%) do not speak any other languages except Arabic. This means



that the factor of other languages is not in favour of the target group. Nevertheless, this would not affect very much either the design of material or its gradation (Ibid).

#### 6. Background knowledge of English:

It is necessary to investigate the student's background knowledge of English as a factor influencing his access of learning in the next stage (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986).

Students in intermediate stage have hardly any knowledge of English before coming to intermediate school. As shown in the Data Investigation (Ch.4) only a very few of intermediate students have had an experience of English beforehand (13.4%) while a great majority (86.6%) have no background at all in English. Those who are identified to possess some knowledge of English are most likely to have had their information from previous education (since there are some private primary schools which run English courses) as through watching and listening to the 2nd channel in Saudi TV. Their elder brothers and sisters might have been a source of the pre-intermediate experience of English when a student tried to satisfy his curiosity about the new language. On the whole, it can be said that the majority of intermediate students are zero-beginners.

#### ii) External qualities:

##### 1. Students' attitude to the language, people and culture:

Many studies have shown the crucial role of attitude in general (Lambert and Lambert, 1964) and in learning a foreign language in particular (Anisfield and Lambert, 1961; Lambert, Gardner, Barrik and Tunstall, 1963). On the other hand, other recent studies on foreign language

learners in Britain (Burstall et al, 1974; Green, 1975) found no clear evidence of the role of attitudes as a contributor to mastery. However, attitude is different from motivation. Attitude need not be considered as a source or a component of motivation as many scholars in the field do, (e.g. Gardner, 1950; 1968 and Lambert, 1962), although it may share with motivation some characteristics. Attitude is learned by experience as motivation is, but an attitude typically lasts longer than motivation which may disappear soon after the stimulus vanishes. Motivation can be instrumental as well as motivation which may disappear soon after the stimulus vanishes. Motivation can be instrumental as well as integrative which means that it can also be measured directly in some cases, while attitude is always integrative and cannot be measured so directly (AL-Shammary, 1984). Motivation is either good or bad because it is intentional, with some purpose in mind. Attitude however is either positive or negative; it is quantifiable but not good or bad because it has no necessary purpose. Good motivation may bring about negative attitude and bad motivation may engender positive attitude. The relationship between attitude and behaviour is weak because attitude is largely governed by a preference which is related to feelings and emotions. In foreign language learning there is a common belief that positive motivation would result from positive attitude which brings about fruitful learning while neutral attitude is a consequence of negative motivation (Littlewood, 1984). This is not always true since attitude and motivation are sometimes

contradictory (Al-Shammmary, 1984). Africans who learn English or French as a lingua franca or some middle easterners who learn English as a tool for importing technology (Kennedy and Balitho, 1984) cannot be said to have positive attitudes towards English or French people or cultures and annually they celebrate their independence from the British or French colonial system. On one hand, a learner who possesses attitudes in favour of the target language or its culture may not display positive motivation towards learning the language itself. On the other hand, positive attitudes towards the target language, people and its culture could become supportive and a predictor of a positive motivation if the situations of learning were ideal (AL-Shammmary, 1984).

The attitudes discussed in this sense are what the learner feels towards the language, community and people before being placed into a learning situation (Stern, 1983). There are some Saudi studies in this respect, however, most of them mixed the term attitude with other terms like aptitude and motivation. Mulla, for instance, has ascertained the impact of numerous factors on Saudi students including aptitude, attitude, motivation and other biological factors and concluded that there is a positive attitude among secondary school students to learn English language (Mulla, 1979). Mulla's finding is challenged by Stern's definition of attitude. AL-Shammmary in his study of the effect of motivation on learning English in Saudi intermediate and secondary schools has also concluded that attitude towards learning English is generally favourable



though it fluctuates in degree between intermediate and secondary stages .(AL-Shammmary , 1984).

Attitudes towards learning English in this study are viewed as a general supportive factor to motivation. In the Data Investigation of this study, three questions were addressed to students to find out their emotional feelings and attitudes towards English. Although the responses have been given by students who are already involved in learning situations yet the conceptions implied reflect students' emotional feelings. In the first item most students acknowledge that English is important, only a few of them (12.5%) answering negatively. In the second question a larger number (93%) say that English merits learning as a subject in the school. These two responses indicate the students' positive attitude towards English. The positive attitude of Saudi Community influences the students' attitude, too. Moreover, writers suggest that these learners who have not sufficient experience of the foreign language community begin with neutral attitudes and their attitudes will develop by learning as it is experienced in the classroom (Littlewood, 1984). The majority of students in the third question (76.3%) feel happy with the English period which indicates a positive attitude towards English in as much as attitude is expressed in terms of feelings.

## 2. Student's Motivation

In foreign language learning as in every field of human learning motivation is the principle factor that determines whether the learner embarks on a task, how much energy he devotes and how long he perseveres (Littlewood, 1984). Richard



views motivation as not only leading to perseverance but to a heightened concentration or intensity of attention that produces more rapid learning (Richards in Byrne, 1980). Yet the components of motivation and attempts to classify them into various types is a controversial matter. A number of complex aspects constitute motivation each of which has its own root and source. Drive, aspiration, need for achievement and attribution are deemed to be the ingredients of motivation by MacDonough (1981). Features of motivation might be suspended and frustrated in some respects leading to failure to learn, and 'the successful language learner is always highly motivated and understands the fact that he is learning something which has some relevance to his future' (AL-Ahaydib, 1986). It is assumed that motivation towards foreign language learning stems from the need of the learner to learn that language; the stronger that perceived need the more powerful the motivation is likely to be. Motivation is also strengthened or weakened according to socio-cultural factors, aptitude, attitude and biological variables (Mulla, 1979). If the attitude of the society towards the foreign language and its people is positive then it is more likely to affect indirectly the student's own motivation. It has been stated earlier that Saudi society is neither hostile nor biased against English language or people, thus motivation of students is reinforced by this factor. The aptitude and attitude of the Saudi students as elicited from the discussion above and elaborated by many studies in the field (Mulla, 1979; Al-Shammmary, 1984; AL-Ahaydib, 1986) are indicators of positive motivation. Biological factors are central in dictating the type of motivation appropriate to

learners in this stage. In other words, both motivations integral and instrumental, are indispensable for creating fertile conditions for learning English. The teacher may start with intrinsic motivation for adolescents of the first grade till the second term of the second grade, but then his instruction should be guided by extrinsic motivation particularly at the third grade. The students at the early stage of learning might not be able to appreciate the instrumental purposes for learning English, thus they should be taught to socialize and internalize the language by means of introducing some aspects of English culture as subjects for this communication. At the end of the intermediate stage students become more capable of perceiving the instrumental purposes of learning English. The shift in motivation, therefore should be from intrinsic motives (connected with the aspects of English culture) to extrinsic motives (linked with the communicative and functional purposes of learning English). Concerning motivation all studies showed a great affection and interest among Saudi Arab students towards learning English. For instance, a study managed by Musa Al-Habeeb who found that 'the majority of the students were interested in learning English and many of them tried hard to learn it' (Al-Habeeb, 1981). AL-Shammary conducted a study of motivation in the learning of English as a foreign language among intermediate and secondary stage students in Saudi Arabia and concluded that:

"(1) the Saudi students' overall motivation to learn English as a foreign language is generally moderately high.

(2) the Saudi students' motivation to learn English as foreign language fluctuates significantly in

the initial stage. It goes from its highest level in the first three weeks of grade 7 - (1st grade intermediate) - to its lowest level by the beginning of grade 8 - (2nd grade intermediate)."

(AL-Shammary, 1984:4)

He also found that motivation reaches its zenith with the second grade students which made him conclude that the older students grow the more able they become to realise their needs. Nevertheless, AL-Shammary does not differentiate in his study between integrative and instrumental motivation because he believes that:

"anyone who wants to integrate himself into a second or a foreign language community or culture, has a utilitarian purpose of some kind for his integration, thus his integrative motivation boils down to a clear utilitarian instrumental purpose of some kind".

(AL-Shammary, 1984:43)

Another study of Saudi students' motivation in intermediate and secondary stage by AL-Ahaydib shows 'that the students had a very high motivation to learn English when they entered the program, but after spending some time their motivation was lessened' (AL-Ahaydib, 1986:122). All these studies ignore the difference between integrative and instrumental motivation which is important in selecting the strategy of teaching. The survey carried out in this research shows that students' motivation is high for, on average, 86 per cent in responses to the three motivation questions. The motivation intended for the intermediate students will be a mixture between integrative and instrumental since the target learners are adolescents who share children and adults' characteristics. Gardner and Lambert assume that although the foreign language learner does not possess needs similar to those of his desire for satisfying his biological urges in his mother tongue, yet



he should still integrate with the foreign language and culture in order to enjoy and persist in its learning. This justifies the compound of motivation adopted in the Model since both 'additive' and 'subtractive' situations arise in the learning process (Gardner, 1979). The tactic suggested for motivation require breaking instructional objectives down in order to allow efficient fulfilments of general and mediate objectives.

#### 4.2.4.3. Teacher's factors

The role of the language teacher is crucial to the learning process for the double roles he plays as an educationist and as an instructor; and for the dual functions he fulfils as a transmitter of knowledge and a facilitator for acquiring that knowledge (Finocchiaro and Bonono, 1973). In the scholastic year 1983-1984 there were about one thousand six hundred English teachers in the intermediate stage, although not all of them were Saudis. This section surveys the present status of English language teachers in intermediate stage with reference to the qualifications they hold and their attitudes towards English as foreign language.

##### 4.2.4.3.1. Teacher's Qualifications

No precise figures of the types and the number of qualifications held are available but according to the Data Investigation nearly half of the teachers (43%) have undergraduate diplomas while the other half or more have B.A. in English or English and Education. It should be borne in mind that not all English teachers are Saudis; some of them are expatriate teachers who have been recruited from different countries such as Egypt, Iraq, Syria, Palestine and Pakistan. As a consequence a variety of experience, skill and background knowledge is likely to be found in one school.



Saudi teachers of English have two types of training in Saudi Arabia:

1. Programmes offered by Colleges of Arts and Education with English as major which last four years. Teachers joining Colleges of Education are professionally trained as teachers of English as a foreign language, while graduates of Arts Colleges are not educationally trained (AL-Frayh and AL-Hajjailan, 1983). In addition to their professional training a total of sixty credit hours of English as a major subject are given to the student in Colleges of Education. These include composition, literature, applied linguistic, phonology, grammar, translation, methods of teaching English and teaching practice.
2. Programmes run by the Ministry of Education with the co-operation of The Institute of General Administration for teachers already working in the elementary schools. After spending a year in studying threshold courses of basic grammar, composition and communication skills they are sent to Britain to pursue a two year course in various colleges and institutes of languages. The programme embodies language skills, grammar, pronunciation, linguistics, phonetics, methods, micro-teaching and a final dissertation as a research paper. This programme has stopped at the moment, and instead is running in Saudi Arabia in The Institute of General Administration.

From a quick look at the contents of both modules it can be said that the first module lacks some requirements for teachers of English as a foreign language such as: English language culture, English for communication and for academic purposes, principles of communicative syllabus (Stevens, 1977:74-77) and behaviourist psychological habits in learning a foreign language (Yu-Zhen, 1987: Newsletter 230). The

second module, in addition to this requirement, is also lacking in other particulars such as: psycho- and socio-linguistics, management of learning and classroom activities (Norris, 1977). Although the two programmes produce language teachers yet they are quite different in the time available, location, staff and facilities in addition to what has been said about contents. The first programme lasts four years or so according to the pace and success of the student, whereas the second programme has been fixed at three years. Trainees in the first programme are secondary school leavers while trainees in the second one are elementary school teachers who might have spent several years in teaching. The environment of the first programme is Saudi Arabia with its local culture, while the second programme takes place in the native-language culture and environment. The staff in the latter case are not native but in the former they are all natives. Teaching is practised in schools in the first programme while trainees in the second programme have only micro-teaching using closed-circuit television and video-tape recording.

The main lesson from this consideration of qualifications is the divergence in the background knowledge and pedagogy of teachers. Analysing objectives into different levels of specifications would help the teachers; with varying abilities and incompatible competences to act with similar proficiency.

#### 4.2.4.3.2. Teacher's in-Service Programmes

The purposes underlying the in-service training programme for non-natives are to enable the teachers to be qualified in English and to develop their attitudes towards the language in order to conduct enthusiastic, efficient and skilful teaching (Yu-Zhen: Newsletter Conference:31). In relation to the in-service training programme in Saudi Arabia a few courses are run by some faculties of education

during the school holidays and a small number of teachers attend them (AL-Kamookh, 1981). The Ministry of Education used to send some teachers to some British universities for a four weeks course (AL-Faryh and AL-Hajailan, 1984), but the programme has been abandoned. There remains only the meetings between teachers and supervisors of English which are organized once or twice a year in some directorates of education (Empirical Investigation). On the whole, in-service programmes are rarely provided to teachers in general and teachers of English in particular. An English teacher, therefore, cannot keep abreast of knowledge of the language and its teaching methodology which must damage his enthusiasm and consequently his performance.

#### 4.2.4.3.3. Teacher's Attitude Towards English

One of the important factors influencing a student's motivation towards learning the foreign language is the teacher's own behaviour which reflects his personal attitudes towards the target language and culture (Valette and Disick, 1972). Abu-Taleb, who was one of the English teacher-trainers in the faculty of Education in Makkah, in describing his trainees said:

"Many of these students show great promise. They are enthusiastic about teaching in general, have achieved a good command of English and show originality in the selection and production of classroom material".

(Abu-Taleb, 1979)

Investigation shows that English teachers do not seem to enjoy their career very much, a paradox which might be justified by the considerable period of involvement in the profession of teaching. A few of them do not have any interest in a career in teaching which is attributed to the general dissatisfaction of this profession. Some were obliged to go to education-colleges because their chances of enrolling in their preferred fields were poor, others might have passed through difficult circumstances which did not allow them to



leave their family to attend the far away university's specialised courses. Inadequate and bad selection of student-teachers for a faulty of education could be another reason for this loss of interest. Faculties of education used to welcome those who have not been admitted by other faculties and colleges because of low standard-grades on their Secondary Certificates. It is not surprising, then, to hear complaints from students that their teachers:

"were only concerned with completing their assigned duties in the time allowed without consideration of learning.

(AL-Habeeb, 1981)

The responses obtained from teachers in the interviews and questionnaires also show that even those who enjoy their career do not go beyond the passive receiving of instructions handed down to them from supervisors or the Ministry of Education, whereas the competent teacher of English should at least reach the stage of 'characterization'. The passionate and visionary language teacher is one who subscribes to relevant journals, co-operates in conferences, attends local meetings and participates in activities to improve his proficiency (Vallette-Disick, 1972).

It can be concluded then that English teachers are generally not very interested in their jobs and therefore their commitment to the English language is weak. A low level of attitude is likely to be an outcome of the lack of in-service training, or follow from the admission of poorly motivated persons into the training programmes. Very often teachers of English are found to be warm and enthusiastic at the beginning of their professional life but this eagerness gradually declines as they pass their third or fourth year and then completely disappears.



#### 4.2.4.4. School and Resources

A chronological review of educational development shows an immense increase in the number of intermediate students and, as a result, an enormous number of intermediate schools. In 1961 there were fifty-seven intermediate schools containing seven thousands or so; the number has doubled several times since then. The number of intermediate school students is now over a quarter of a million accommodated in one thousand six hundred schools. This tremendous increase in the number of intermediate students has meant that inappropriately designed school buildings and randomly rented houses are needed to hold the yearly increase of students. Most of these schools lack facilities such as laboratories, cloakroom, workshops, playgrounds and yards, libraries and theatres. Referring to the British Council's Report on Saudi Arabia, there are three hundred language laboratories distributed between secondary and intermediate schools. The Report gives some illustrations of the state and condition of labs:

"The laboratories are rarely used and, very often, once the first technical breakdown has occurred, the door is firmly locked, and the equipment remains untouched. The problem here is the lack of a properly qualified maintenance technician either at the school or in the Zone Education Office.

(British Council, Language Profile, Saudi Arabia - 1979)

Rooms of the rented houses are not designed to be classrooms, thus they are not equipped with necessary aids and material. Some of them lack cupboards and other facilities for keeping and protecting such materials. Learning in these classes is often handicapped by lack of air-conditioning taking into account the hot weather which characterizes most of the country. Although there are libraries in some schools, they are poor in relevant topics of language learning and methodology. Sufficient references in TEFL cannot be found in them to help language teachers to revise, feed and develop their

competence (AL-Ahaydib -1968). The time allotted for English in intermediate school is four periods of forty-five minutes each which comes to three hours per week. If each term approximately lasts fourteen weeks then each grade of intermediate has a grand total of eighty-four hours. It was eight periods per week but in 1972 the number was reduced to six and then reduced to four only in the 1980s. This reduction in teaching time has an influence on the amount of material selected and the quality of methods required to teach it, bearing in mind that English in rural areas in Saudi Arabia does not play any social function (Empirical Investigation - this study).

Audio visual aids are available in some schools but not all (see for example Musa AL-Habeeb, 1981). Other facilities in school like playgrounds and yards, cloakrooms, workshops and spaces and gardens (if they exist) are rarely taken advantage of as realia on the claim that in using them school discipline is broken rather than that they waste time. AL-Kamaakh in his study of the perceptions of English language teachers in Saudi Arabia toward English showed that:

"there was a lack of facilities such as language laboratories ....., workshops, journals and other publications concerning teaching English".

(AL-Kamookh, 1981)

The Empirical Investigation - Lesson Observation of this study shows that some teachers used some media of instruction like overhead projectors and tape-recorders but no realia in lesson demonstrations. Other teachers never used any aid except chalk-and-talk. With all these restrictions, most of the classes are over crowded (AL-Ahaydib, 1986) which adds more difficulties to the teacher's responsibility to manage and react properly with the whole audience. On the other hand, this problem has begun to disappear as the authority starts to reduce the number of students by opening more schools. The Saudi Community as a resource of English could be exploited since there is

a wide variety of devices - one listens, speaks and reads English - but writing in English is hardly every used. Joy remarks of the Saudi Community Resources:

"English signs are visible throughout the city and countryside. English is spoken on construction sites, in shops, between mistress and servant and in just about any international work situation where Arabic is not the native tongue of some speakers."

(Joy, 1985:61)

Furthermore, operating manuals, equipment instructions and medicine directions are all written in English which enhances reading of written English. Two popular English newspapers are published in Saudi Arabia: 'The Saudi Gazette' and 'The Arab News' which helps in promoting reading skills. Listening to oral English is frequently encouraged by English programmes such as Sesame Street, and many films on the 2nd Channel. "There are," in addition, "many organizations which offer programs in English, all shops and supermarkets carry items labelled in English, and quite often shop assistants are third world workers who speak better English than Arabic." (Ibid:62).

On the whole it can be said that, with all these constraints, and lack of facilities, the school and other resources are still enough to inspire the English language situation. In other words, if such resources are compared with what are offered by some other developing, and maybe developed, countries the ones Saudi intermediate schools have are much better and are more likely to produce better results if the conditions and circumstances are improved.

#### 4.2.4.5. The Role of Saudi Culture

Since language is an aspect of culture and concurrently a vehicle by which cultural aspects are moulded, its influence on foreign language can be negative and positive. The culture of Saudi Arabia operates as refiner of socially unacceptable aspects of



English language and culture, and as a determiner of the sorts of learning style which are appropriate for Saudi learners. The country is a centre of conservative Muslims in as much as it is the heartland of Islam which entails that any culture behaviours contradictory to the principles of Islam should not be employed. Material should be carefully designed so as not to embody any kind of forbidden experiences, disallowed behaviours or prohibited names or items. Although students at intermediate stage are intrinsically motivated to learn English such aspects of the target culture as: wine, pork, bacon and ham may not be included in an English programme unless they are manipulated as to reflect foreign situations. Furthermore, all forms of gambling, vain sport, talking and walking with the other sex are strictly prohibited and should not appear in school textbooks (AL-Subahi in IATEFL, 1988).

#### 4.2.5. The Approach and The Method

It has already been determined that the syllabus recommended by the English curriculum should be communicative, through the realization and interpretation of the goals and objectives of teaching English in intermediate stage. Yet, 'communicative' is a confusing term which in fact carries more than one meaning as demonstrated in the Review of Literature. A communicative approach may therefore display various views and strategies of teaching/learning the language each of which has its own approach. Accordingly, the most common and familiar of these approaches are: the Natural Approach, the Procedural Approach, Negotiated Approach, the Immersion-teaching Approach and the Functional-Notional Approach. The Natural Approach deals with language acquisition rather than learning, it suggests that 'experiences are to be provided in the classroom by a series of effective acquisition activities based on



providing comprehensible input' (Yalden, 1987:64).

Objectives depend on the learners' needs while material and content come from the world of realia and not from textbooks (Richard and Rodgers, 1986). Such an approach is not appropriate for intermediate schools for two reasons: the first one is that objectives and goals are pre-stated by the Government; and the other is because audio-visual aids and realia might not be at hand or sufficient in some schools. The Procedural Approach requires learners to carry out tasks and activities in the target language rather than teaching the use of the language itself (Yalden, 1987). Some reservations about adopting it apply here: it is totally dependable on the teacher's competence which cannot be warranted in the Saudi situation due to the wide range of background knowledge and experience and the diversity of teachers' qualifications. Moreover, the approach has no pre-defined targets that can be seen as end products or mediate outcomes which serve as a means to end-products. The approach relies on tasks preceding the actual behaviours called pre-tasks which cannot apply to fresh Saudi intermediate students.

The Negotiated Approach is self-directed or autonomous learning where the teacher's teaching role is nearly absent. Instructional material is negotiated between learners and their teacher, though the teacher is considered one of the resources available to learners. The approach does not meet the Saudi Community's aspirations inherent in the general objectives, nor does it satisfy the overall ambitions involved in student exigencies. Moreover, education is centrally directed in Saudi Arabia which allows little chance for such an approach to survive as it might be considered lacking in minor accountability and too loose. The Immersion-teaching Approach is sometimes called the subject-matter approach since the foreign

language is used as a medium of instruction for teaching school subjects. This approach is also not applicable because English is taught as one of the school subjects in intermediate stage. Further, Arabic is used for teaching all other subjects and cannot be replaced by any other languages for teaching Islamic and Arabic language subjects rather its dear position in the hearts of Saudi and their fanatic allegiance to it stands against any attempt to replace it by any other language for this purpose.

The approach adopted for the intermediate English syllabus is selected from communicative and structural approaches. It tries to achieve a balance between knowledge of English and the ability to use that knowledge to conduct communicative and academic purposes. Nevertheless, the approach is slightly weighted in favour of skills because students in intermediate stage are in late childhood and interacting in skills of the language in the class is more holistic and motivational for adolescents than manipulating discrete language elements (Ellis, 1984). Moreover, it establishes a sound communicative foundation for later stages of learning where the need for knowledge of English is more significant. A third reason for this choice is that acquisition and learning are hardly distinguished in the phase of studying a foreign language, and are seen as complementary components of the same process (Widdowson, 1978b). Spiralling specific objectives and content is appreciated in the approach to maintain constant reinforcements and feedback to students. The method adopted to crystalize the syllabus implementation is called the 'Envelope Method'. The Envelope Method is a proportional method associating communicative skills with linguistic knowledge in such a way that components of communication - situations, notions and functions - collaborate with the aspects of

linguistic knowledge to attain syllabus objectives. Figure 6 illustrates the tactics used in dealing proportionally with the six elements of use and usage of the language; the amount counted for each level of learning is not the same. A great deal of linguistic knowledge is displayed and manipulated in the second grade while a similar quantity of communicative skills is experienced and rehearsed in both first and third grade. Each level shows different ratios of components and aspects according to its nature and location, and the maturity of the candidates. In other words, while emphasis is put more on pronunciation in the first grade, grammar and lexis are prominent in the second and third grade. This strategy permits much more space for situations and functions to be exposed than notions, nevertheless all components of communication and elements of linguistics are present to a substantial degree in each grade. Focus is put on situations in the first grade because it is easy to connect the different parts of each lesson or unit of organisation in a natural and vivid way. Moreover, situations are more concrete than notions or functions since they are naturally created with almost authentic settings, so they are more convenient for zero-beginners (Johnson, 1982). Notions are dominant in the second grade when students are assumed to have a considerable amount of language and when structures are more deeply discussed. Functions are delayed to the third grade when the candidates are ready to generate the language to fulfil their needs and syllabus objectives. Second grade is regarded as the central level for the core mastery of English knowledge and structures since it summarizes and synthesises the structural elements implied in the situations of the first grade where 'inductive learning' is the method which pervades. In addition, it provides rules and demonstrates elements of grammar for the third



Figure: 6

The Envelope Method

1st Year Intermediate	2nd Year Intermediate	3rd Year Intermediate
<div>1 - Pronunciation 2 - Writing 3 - Lexis 4 - Grammar</div>	<div>Structural Knowledge</div> <div>1 - Grammar 2 - Lexis 3 - Pronunciation</div>	<div>1 - Lexis 2 - Grammar 3 - Pronunciation</div>
<div>1 - Settings 2 - Functions 3 - Notions</div>	<div>1 - Notions 1 - Settings 2 - Functions</div>	<div>1 - Functions 2 - Notions 3 - Settings</div>
	<div>Communicative Skills</div>	

grade's functions where 'deductive learning' is the method that best meets the growing students' aptitude of English.

#### 4.2.6. Selection of Communication Components

The components which constitute the communicative content of the English Syllabus are: functions, notions, settings and general topics which are integrated and derived from each other. In order to identify the behaviours included in the mediate objectives they are classified into three main functions: expressive, descriptive and social, each of which has a number of sub-functions. There are twenty five functions which express the student's personal needs in identifying himself, expressing moral, intellectual and affective attitudes and behaviours. Virtually, language is considered as a result of an interaction between two persons or more, thus socializing is inevitable to activate and consolidate communication and serve other purposes as well. Twenty-eight social functions are, roughly categorised to describe the student's functional behaviours required to bridge social communicative gaps. The descriptive functions are primitive for the student to explore and inspect the physical environment surrounding him. These functions are important for the student-beginner in so far as they allow the learner to use English with the closest concrete material that appear around him. Although the communication in English is restricted to take place in the classroom situations, it is also likely to arise at home (with parents, brother, sisters), in the shop or supermarkets (with the seller or shop assistant), at the airport (with passport officer, customer or travelling counter officer), in an aircraft (with the steward or stewardess, or Captain), in a street (with a visitor or stranger who cannot find his way or asking for certain places), in

the classroom - school and club (with friends and classmates) and in the playground or swimming pool with friends. Some settings have been already identified by the students in intermediate stage during the data-collection (Appendix L.1.). The collection of settings gives emphasis to certain areas of language contacts such as: school, airport, hospital, supermarkets and shops which assumes that they are the most perceptible immediate areas of communication for students. Others such as: 'factory, farm, exhibitions, meeting and conferences' are stated by third grade students, but seem to be more rare and less frequent for intermediate school students. The physical settings suggest psychosocial settings which refer to the social and psychological parameters that circumscribe the use of English (Hymes, 1972). The English Syllabus is designed for intermediate schoolboys only (sex discriminating), the culture of Islam dictates its discipline (intellectually and culturally bound), mainly for general communication (non-professional, argumentative and sympathetic) used by students in villages and small towns in Saudi Arabia as well as in big cities (urban and rural) (Munby, 1978) (see Table 8). Topics are then derived from settings but first synthesised into seventeen realms and then analysed into different streams each of which has a number of sub-topics (Appendix M.2.) Some parts of the topic specifications are influenced directly by setting, viz: environment:local environment, Saudia Arabia, Islamic Education:Islam, football matches; leisure and entertainment personalities; others are inspired by literature in the field (van Ek, 1976; Clark, 1984; French at Foundation, General and Credit Levels, 1984), like: weather and transportation.

A number of social roles are stated in Table 9 to identify the interlocutors with whom the student is expected to interact. They



TABLE 8

The pyschosocial setting which circuit the use ofEnglish in the Model:

- 1. sex discriminating
- 2. intellectual
- 3. occasionally aesthetic
- 4. religious
- 5. non-professional
- 6. private and public
- 7. urban-rural
- 8. familiar physical
- 9. demanding
- 10. mainly unhurried
- 11. formal
- 12. authorisation
- 13. argumentative
- 14. culturally different.

(Munby, 1978)

TABLE 9

The Immediate Social-Relation-  
ships in Saudi Arabia

- 1. Student - student
- 2. Student - teacher
- 3. Student - visitor (stranger  
- native or  
non-native)
- 4. Student - nurse
- 5. Student - restaurant waiter  
or assistant
- 6. Student - pilgrim
- 7. Student - employer  
(manager)
- 8. Student - chauffeur
- 9. Student - housekeeper
- 10. Student - doctor
- 11. Student - pharmacist

The Distant Social-Relationships  
Abroad

- 1. Student - passport officer
- 2. Student - customs officer
- 3. Student - taxi driver (bus  
driver)
- 4. Student - hotel  
receptionist  
or porter
- 5. Student - host (or  
landlord)
- 6. Student - streetpasser-by
- 7. Student - policeman
- 8. Student - doctor
- 9. Student - nurse
- 10. Student - seller
- 11. Student - waiter
- 12. Student - bank clerk
- 13. Student - post-office clerk
- 14. Student - telephone  
operator
- 15. Student - chemist
- 16. Student - waiter
- 17. Student - stewardess

are classified into urgent (in Saudi Arabia) and distant (abroad). The analogy is obviously seen between some roles undertaken by a student in each group e.g. student-waiter, student-doctor, student-nurse and student-pharmacist or chemist. The relationships are two-way since communication entails interpretation as well as production. The number of roles in a foreign country is more than it is in Saudi Arabia in as much as Arabic is not the medium of communication in alien situations. Such roles help in mapping out the specifications of functions which are necessary in manifesting the notions implied in each social relationship. Notions are selected in the Model to bring to completion those gaps left by functions and settings (Appendix K). In other words, the formal diversity of functional exponents and the spectrum of situations that are embedded in some settings call upon notions to fill the blanks left by functions and settings (Johnson, 1982). Seven general notions are set for employing the previous functions and settings with forty-six specific notions, each having a number of exponents with some examples. These notions form the basis on which structure and grammar points are selected. One of the advantages of embracing notions in the communicative components of the Model is the ability to keep the syllabus structurally homogenous as they are punctual and clear-cut (Ibid:85). On one hand the inventory of notions is intended to be comprehensive and includes all potential dimensions which the student is expected to come across when he communicates. On the other hand, gradation of notions, as well as functions and settings, follows the process of staging the immediate objectives since they are framed in terms of functions, notions and settings. Nevertheless, the functions imply that particular notions are learned. For instance, the function of 'leading people to the right way in the street'

requires the general notion 'space' with its specification:  
'direction'.



#### 4.2.7. Immediate Objectives

One hundred and ninety-four objectives are specified in this scheme (Appendix I.2.) which reflect the student's actual demands from English in terms of topical preferences and interests. A person learning a second or third language needs similar facets of communication to those when he first acquires his native language (Littlewood, 1983). A student needs to talk or write about himself, his class, school, home and family; to listen and read about leisure, entertainment, environmental aspects of social facilities and phenomena which exist in his life. Since the social phenomenon compels him to interact with other members of the society he needs to discuss such information by agreeing, disagreeing or inquiring about other information. The student manipulates these behaviours spontaneously, consciously in Arabic, but this spontaneity and automaticness in communication are difficult to achieve in English because it is not native. The philosophy underlying this defect is that the linguistic contents: sound-system, grammar and lexis are not his. This gap of the analogy between Arabic functions, notions and settings and those of English can be reduced if the socio-cultural difference is straitened. The teacher and the resources available for him are crucial in creating such accordance, however, the immediate objectives are stated not only to guide the teacher's effort towards this job but also to gear his behaviours to achieve socio-cultural targets. From this standpoint all constraints previously mentioned - Saudi Culture, Student's and Teacher's Factors - are taken into account in stating these objectives. The objectives are classified into topics selected in the communication components. They, in fact, reflect the student's needs and wants but are inspired and specified by Van Ek's topical behaviours.

#### 4.2.8. Selection and Gradation by objectives

The chief reason behind the choice of objectives as the most reliable apparatus for selecting and grading the contextual material (whether communicative or linguistic) is their appropriateness to life-problems. Objectives stated by The Ministry of Education reflect the overall end-products of learning English and the general potentialities that English offers for intermediate stage. The objectives stated by the Model represent the actual needs and outcomes of English in Saudi Arabia which are implied, on one hand, in the current foreign language pedagogy, and on the other hand, of what the learners and community of Saudi Arabia need English for. When experiences are selected with reference to pre-stated objectives, they are supposed to be related to life acts and deeds that are factual. Moreover, objectives fuse the specification of functions, notions and settings and turn them into general requirements which are more feasible to cope with. The logic of using objectives is to clarify the controversial learning situations which seem obscure and vague, due to the explicitness and publicness they give to both students and a teacher.

The communication components outlined earlier consist of functions, notions and settings. The functions are begot by mediate objectives while settings are engendered by students. Notions are selected to link functions and settings and to integrate the communicative instruction. The three components are embedded now in the form of the immediate objectives which are set in terms of the student's performances and titled by topics. The process of staging the immediate objectives is based on the logical as well as the psychological prospects of learning but taking into account the students' needs analysis as a factor guiding it. Brumfit (1981:19)

suggests that the structural core is more appropriate for organising language experiences and content since it is coherent and harmonious. On the other hand, language learning is not always learning because acquisition is usually found inter-relating, co-existing and sustaining it, especially for beginners, (Yalden, 1987). A compromise has then to be reached which sets the students preferences with the immediate objectives as one pole, and the psychology of learning and logic of organising English as a communicative foreign language as the other pole. English/Arabic structural contrasts may stand against Brumfit's idea of 'structural core' and to avoid such interference, the structures of English have to be perceived through notions which are represented by functions and settings and integrated in terms of the immediate objectives.

The most efficient target situations for beginners are social and descriptive situations (Appendix L.2.). The student needs to identify himself in English and seek other's identification since this satisfies his needs of personal identity. In undertaking this type of communication he is expected to define, agree, correct, inquire and ask for more information, but the language required to serve this purpose fluctuates from very simple in telling name: Ali, to fairly complex for student: I would say that (Agreement). Accordingly, in the level of immediate graded objectives one finds one bit of communication scattered in the three grades, each one fulfilling a purpose whether notional, functional or situational. The objects and items surrounding the students' school and home atmosphere need to be introduced to the student since that induces his motivation to learn more and, psychologically, associates the theoretical image of the item with the concrete existence in the real life. This reinforces the identity he gained from socializing as he



gathers a large number of English words and lexis referring to items he sees or uses. Food and drink are also suitable for beginners due to their concrete nature and connection with the 'physical needs' of learners (Tyler, 1949:7). Daily routines may come now to give the student the chance to surround his identity with the solid phenomena he lives in. In order to fascinate the student's imagination he is now taken out to listen, read and describe (orally or in writing) his country Saudi Arabia, to consolidate the vertical principle of gradation concerning the student's environment (Review of Literature). In grading the students with the layers of objectives they negotiate not only structures (Johnson, 1981) but also the functions, notions and situations as language instruction is dynamic and such a process is invisible and uncontrolled. The criterion here would be the interests of the students and how they are satisfied by methodology. As the student progresses in the second and third grades he is exposed to more sophisticated objectives which require him to use his previous experience and the knowledge he has already grasped in English in multiple combinations of functions, notions and settings. For example, the student in the second grade is required to express his likes and dislikes with regard to hobbies: knowing the items in English and how to define them, how to vindicate his position in favour of a certain hobby (or against another) and the reason behind his choice. Coincidentally, when he 'gives information about his relatives: uncle, aunt, grandfather etc.' he is supposed to have mastered: father, mother, sister, brother in order to prepare him to realise the relationship between them and: 'uncle, aunt, grandfather, grandmother, nephew, niece, cousin' which is slightly different in English than in Arabic. Objectives of the first grade are found to be more situational than the second grade's which are

notional owing to the envelope approach adopted in the Model. The third grade's objectives tend to be functional since students need to accomplish certain exposures in real life situations. So far the situational objectives are graded according to the logic of English as a subject and the psychology of learners as Saudi Arab adolescents. 'Possession' should come first (see Inventory of Notions) since students have already been involved in personal identification in English (my, your, his, their) followed by 'Nature and Peculiarity' (good, well, listen, hear, glass, wood). 'Space' is important to reinforce situations learned in the first grade and smooth the way for functions coming in the third grade. Possession, nature and peculiarity, and space are prerequisites for the 'Time' which is deeply dealt with in the third grade. The most important figures in Time are 'present' 'past' and 'future' which specify thereafter 'sequence', 'condition', frequency', 'duration', 'allocation' and 'priority'. Although students have already manipulated tenses in the first year (e.g. daily routines) yet the specific notions of time are deliberately displayed in the second year (e.g. how he and his family spend the evening, describing the four seasons, give information about his school year: duration, terms, holidays).

The functions in the third grade's objectives follow the same principles since the student's role here is to communicate with situations and notions he mastered in the first two grades. Nevertheless, whether one objective comes before or after another depends on what areas of notions and setting it comes with.

#### 4.2.9. Specific Objectives

After the gradation of immediate objectives they are broken down into smaller targets more manageable for teachers and students. The

integrity of functions, notions and settings remains intact; only the immediate objective is analysed into its elements (Appendix I.1.). One hundred and ninety one statements are broken down for the first grade, one hundred and eighty for the second and one hundred and fifty eight for the third grade. The list of specific objectives is still not exhaustive if reference is made to the unpredictable events that often arise in classroom situations. The specific objectives are especially important for those teachers who need immediate guidance and particular attention (Data Investigation). They follow these objectives in teaching and try to achieve them in their learners, and their assessment partially depends on them. Students, and parents, find specific objectives useful for studying, revising and following up. The functions embraced in these objectives are of two sorts: student's expression of his needs, and student's awareness of other's needs or information. Giving and seeking information about name, age, address and telephone number is analysed into twenty-two objectives (first 22 in First Grade). On the other hand, topics like Islamic education, petrol and oil and football matches commentary, which are selected by students, demand a greater range of structure and lexis and therefore objectives related to these topics are specified for second and third grade students.

One of the important tasks played by specific objectives is their role in selecting learning experiences. A specific objective implies one target which should be achieved at one event while the immediate objective may involve more than a target at a time. This specification helps decide what learning experience a student is required to pass through in order to achieve his target.



#### 4.2.10. Selection and Gradation of Learning Experiences

A language syllabus has no obvious content in the sense that language learner is a language user and not only an absorber. Language is a skill subject and not a content subject as it relates indirectly to the goals of education, e.g. to create beauty, to live morally or to be a good citizen. It does not contribute directly to the accumulation of knowledge yet it does facilitate it. Learning experiences are divided into direct experiences - associated with skills, behaviours and feelings - and vicarious experiences - reflect facts and universals (Review of Literature). In the case of language as a skill subject both types of experiences are involved, and the balance will depend on the approach adopted for the process of design and implementation. Due to the communicative approach developed in the Model direct experiences are required more than vicarious.

In the Model, vicarious experiences provide the students with the necessary psychomotor and skills recognition in order to be able to manipulate the language elements and assimilate the mechanisms that bring them up to communication. Direct experiences prompt the students to involve in the actual oral (listening and speaking) and literate (reading and writing) use of English. Both types are prescribed by the specific objectives but viewed through the four skills and abilities. On the other hand, one experience might be shared by more than one skill especially those described under: listening and speaking, reading and writing.

Because communicative learning situations in the classroom are not real but contrived, experiences are instigated in terms of simulation, role-play discussion and problem-solving (come later in Methodology), to evoke the sense and feelings of direct experiences. It is mastery of the vicarious experiences which develops the

student's linguistic competence in English yet it is only a means to an end that is direct experience. The list of the experiences (Appendix O) is analysed into three levels: psycho-motor, linguistic and communicative experiences. The psycho-motor and linguistic experiences groups are graded according to the logic of English. The communicative experiences are graded according to the pedagogy and psychology of discussion, role-play, simulation and problem-solving (Banner - in 'Forum', 1985). The psycho-motor experiences refer to the mechanical tasks performed by the students which are based on mimicry and rote memorisation. They exist only in the productive skills (speaking and writing) for the difference between English and Arabic. Thus, experiences from 1 to 10 in 'speaking' and from 1 to 6 in writing are psycho-motor. They intend to train the student hand and tongue to transcribe and pronounce English modelled by the teacher or on the blackboard mechanically. Experiences in this domain promote the student's potential for the new habits and customs he should acquire. The linguistic experiences entail that the student is able to understand and recall facts about English letters, words and sentences. They enable the student to master the aspects of English - lexis, grammar and phonology - and realize their combinations in order to reproduce new patterns of usage. Accuracy experiences are from 1 to 22 in listening, 1 to 15 in reading, 11 to 19 in speaking and from 7 to 16 in writing. In terms of classroom socializing and discussion, role-play, simulation and problem solving the communicative experiences are contrived to enable the student to use English in life situations. These are probably edited or controlled in reading and listening but the student's performance in speaking and writing is relatively unstructured. In this stage the experiences encourage the

comprehensibility of the relationship between the vicarious and direct experiences in so far as competence and performance are involved (Munby, 1978).

These experiences are not comprehensive as they are only examples rather than prescriptions. The unpredictable circumstances of the class situation engender countless countless experiences which are not anticipated and listed. The three stages of experiences appear in the three grades but experiences involved in the psychomotor are mainly concerned with the pre-production stage at the first year. Occasionally they appear in the second and third grades when needs arise to rehearse and check bits of pronunciation or spelling. The linguistic experiences start from the beginning of the first grade interchangeably with the communicative experiences through the second up to the third grades but their prominence is obvious at the second grade when notions are further highlighted than functions and settings. The linguistic experiences are important from the first day of learning when the teacher and his students socialize in English but their maximum effectiveness occurs at the second grade when students have a considerable grasp of English lexis and grammar. They also reinforce the structures taught at the first grade and prepare the ground for the third grade's linguistic experiences. The experiences in each category are graded according to the principles of difficulty and simplicity, despite that such criteria might not always be reliable as individuals differ as regards what is difficult and what is easy (Davis, 1976). The principle is adopted for its logic and the psychologic appropriateness, hence, simple experiences should come before complex and easy before difficult.



#### 4.2.11. Selection of Linguistic Components

After the selection of the communicative components (settings, functions and notions) and their contribution in the statement of the immediate objectives, the linguistic components are selected with reference to the specific objectives to provide the learning experiences with the necessary phonology, structures and lexis.

Three inventories of English , structures and vocabulary are listed in the Appendices P, Q and R. -

Communication in itself is unsystematic and unpredictable but organised structure and lexis are often used to achieve it. Put another way, although the selection of linguistic material is affected by the priority of functions, notions and settings yet their content has to be learned systematically.

##### 4.2.11.1. The Phonology Inventory

The accent selected for the Model is Received Pronunciation since it is popular and understandable to all people who know English. Further, it is spoken by BBC newsreaders on radio and television and described in all dictionaries and reference available for foreign learners all over the world (Hughes and Trudgill, 1980).

#### 4.2.11.2. The Selection of Structures

There are two inventories given for structures: one is based on syntax and the other one on structural items (Appendices Q, R). Both are alphabetically organised and illustrated by exponents and examples. Although such lists of grammar rules and paradigms have been shelved in the light of the communicative approach towards syllabus design and implementation which started in the seventies onward, yet structural grading is still operating in terms of apparent increasing difficulty. The logico-grammatical framework is introduced in the Model as a cyclical structural pattern governed by notions demonstrated earlier. Its sequence suggests the beginning with: be + noun/adjective combinations proceeding to: the definite and indefinite article: the /a(an) + be + noun, up to: have/have got + noun/adjective combinations. This order is dictated by such objectives as: 'Student tells/writes his name', 'Student tells names of items in the classroom' etc. A short sentence with noun/pronoun + be/verb + adjective: 'I am tired', is more easily mastered than long clauses and phrases represented by such a sentence as: 'I am tired than I might have been able to see you earlier if you had given me a ring'. (Alexander, 1977). For this reason long grammatical versions are discarded when shorter ones serve the purpose.

The first inventory is given only as a reference for senior supervisors and the curriculum evaluators of English in order to explore and assess the dimensions attained by the syllabus. It also can be a reference for the teacher at the beginning or end of each term to check his progress against.

The second inventory shows greater depth and more comprehensiveness since it is structurally organised with reference to each item occurring in learning, and it includes nearly all the structural

words incorporated in the lexical inventory. More than two hundred structural items are listed in this inventory with their grammatical nomination, sub-grammatical nomination and possible exponents constructed from the items of the lexical inventory. Although the alphabetical organisation of the inventory seems to be linear yet the notions give cyclical form to the syllabus. For instance, the structural item: 'about' comes with the 'time' notion: 'It is about 7 o'clock', but it comes with 'passive relation' - information: 'Write about Saudi Arabia'. It comes further with 'physical' - suggestion: 'How about a cup of coffee?'

Organisation of the structural items depends on three criteria: the specific objectives, the logico - grammatical (which has been mentioned above) and the structural contrasts with Arabic, working altogether and a compromise should be arrived at among them. The notions are embedded in the specific objectives and therefore they monitor the gradation of structures in each grade. English grammar is different from Arabic in terms of morphology and syntax. Irregular patterns of verb, noun, adjective may cause a problem for students whose language is mainly derived from verbs like Arabic. Similarly, English has only singular and plural forms for nouns, verbs and pronouns while Arabic has dual in addition to singular and plural. The most contrastive area is found in tenses since some tenses in English do not have counterparts in Arabic, e.g. present perfect, present continuous, present perfect continuous (all represented by past simple). All these areas of contrasts can be dealt with by cyclical manipulation of each bit to clarify each situation by means of settings, functions or notions. This may suggest starting with present continuous and past continuous for a considerable time in the first grade - first term - before



introducing the simple present and the simple past - second term. Present and past perfect may be better introduced in the second grade. Perfect continuous can be delayed till the third year when the student has a good command of other preliminary tenses.

#### 4.2.11.3. The Selection of Vocabulary and Preformed Patterns

The six conferences of the International Federation of Modern Language Teachers suggested between 1500 and 3000 words for a six-year course. About two thousand words are selected for the English programme in intermediate stage: a few of them are receptive - where students should only understand the item - but most of them are productive - where he should be able to listen and understand the word, speak it, read it and write it as well. The inventory of vocabulary (Appendix P) includes verbs, nouns, prepositions, adjectives, adverbs and conjunctions. Nouns are the most restrictable since they form the majority of English word classes (about 42%, with verbs about 27%, adjectives 18% and adverbs about 13%) (Mackay, 1976: 168). Some words are derivatives such as: Arab, Arabic, Arabian which are counted under correlated frequencies. The more an item combines the more it is likely to be subject to selection, e.g. news + paper, after + wards or noon. Other items are inflected from nouns such as 'paint': to paint, painter, painting, painted. Their inclusion in the list is because they are easily to be analysed and grouped. Concrete items are selected for the direct experiences they give especially for first grade students despite their narrow range (Mackay, 1967: 183). Where some words have repetitive meanings, e.g. seat, chair, suite, armchair, bench then the last three synonyms are excluded from the list. Other words are selected for their metaphorical extension rather than others, e.g. pillar, branch. Similarity of the word with the Arabic counterpart

is one criterion of selection e.g. television, telephone, video, camera. Words that are useless or difficult to pronounce or to spell are excluded such as: hitherto, yonder, hence, since they rarely occur and even then their occurrence is not crucial in communication (Ibid).

The criteria used for selecting vocabulary do not go against specific objectives and learning experiences as principles of selection. On the contrary, they parallel the outlines drawn by the principle but adapt them to the logico-lexical. For example, the specific objective which reads: 'Student tells/writes his first, second and surname' dictates that the student should know the meaning of: 'first', 'second', 'name' and 'surname'. 'First' and 'second' are ordinal numbers which students can learn as a consequence of passing through lessons or units. On the other hand, the criterion of inflection applies on deriving: 'second name' from 'first name' and 'surname' from 'name'. The lexical inventory is supplied with sentences or contexts as examples to illustrate the lexical and structural meanings of the words. For instance, the word 'make' has 97 different dictionary meanings, only two of these meanings are elucidated in the list allowing more freedom for creativity in the classroom. Some words are dropped from the list since they are culturally prohibited such as: disco, beer, pub, bar, dance etc. Vulgar words for Arabs are also excluded e.g. kiss, cuss, unique, zip, zipper, tease. Four types of vocabulary are identified in the inventory: communicative, educational, professional and religious: the communicative dimension occupies two thirds of the bulk since the approach of the Model is communicative.

There are, in addition to the words, some patterns which are preformed to fulfil instant interactive targets, e.g. Good morning!

What else? Yourself? Go ahead! (Appendix S). These are selected in order to equip the student with necessary instant functions required by the immediate situation which sometimes needs a consciousness reaction. Seventy four of them are selected for intermediate where should be memorised according to the setting's demand.

A collection of thirty countries is represented in Appendix U with adjectives, person (singular), person (plural) and nation. Texts may incorporate some or all of these nationality items in intermediate stage if they deal with topics as: journey, visits, lives in foreign countries, or even a general description of these countries.

#### 4.2.12. Selection of Texts:

There are usually three types of materials constructing texts for teaching a language programme, namely authentic, adapted and contrived. The three types structure the instruction whether found in the student's text-book or outside. Genuine material is not favoured by recent writers in the field and extreme followers of authenticity view the target's language system or similar in essence to that of the mother tongue. The child, according to their opinion, is assumed to learn by exposure to the authentic language even if he does not assimilate it (Wingard, 1983). The argument is not so true since the learner does not experience his mother tongue with the same range in various phases of growing. Mother tongue is acquired and learned in a natural situation while a foreign language is acquired and learned in an artificial situation. Authentic material in intermediate stage can be risky because:

1. students in this stage are between thirteen and fifteen and it is difficult for them as beginners to debate social topics which



might not be in the same level as the student's cognitive growth. When authentic social topics are determined for texts they should be selected as to be convenient to the student's cognitive growth.

2. some authentic materials do not satisfy student attitudes and interest which may result in weak feedback by this misrepresentation of normal English.
3. the sense of naturalness might be reduced if bits of authentic material are cut off a unit of events in a newspaper or magazines and fixed in the discourse designed for the purpose of learning.
4. it is not easy for the learners in the first grade intermediate to negotiate with authentic material since their background in English is zero (Data Investigation) and so they are handicapped by the level of structures and lexis which might be above the student's cognitive standards of English.

Nevertheless, language used in the classroom is always arbitrary and unsponaneous because classrooms are places organised for ends beyond themselves. In order to minimize the classroom arbitrariness materials can be contrived and exploited by means of simulation and role-play. Genuine material can be selected carefully from the constant articles in the local newspapers, e.g. Arab News, Saudi Gazette. Such material should meet students' interests and knowledge of English. Contrived material is found more useful for beginners and young learners since it can be moulded to fix the students' imaginary world.

(Trimble, 1985:27)

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

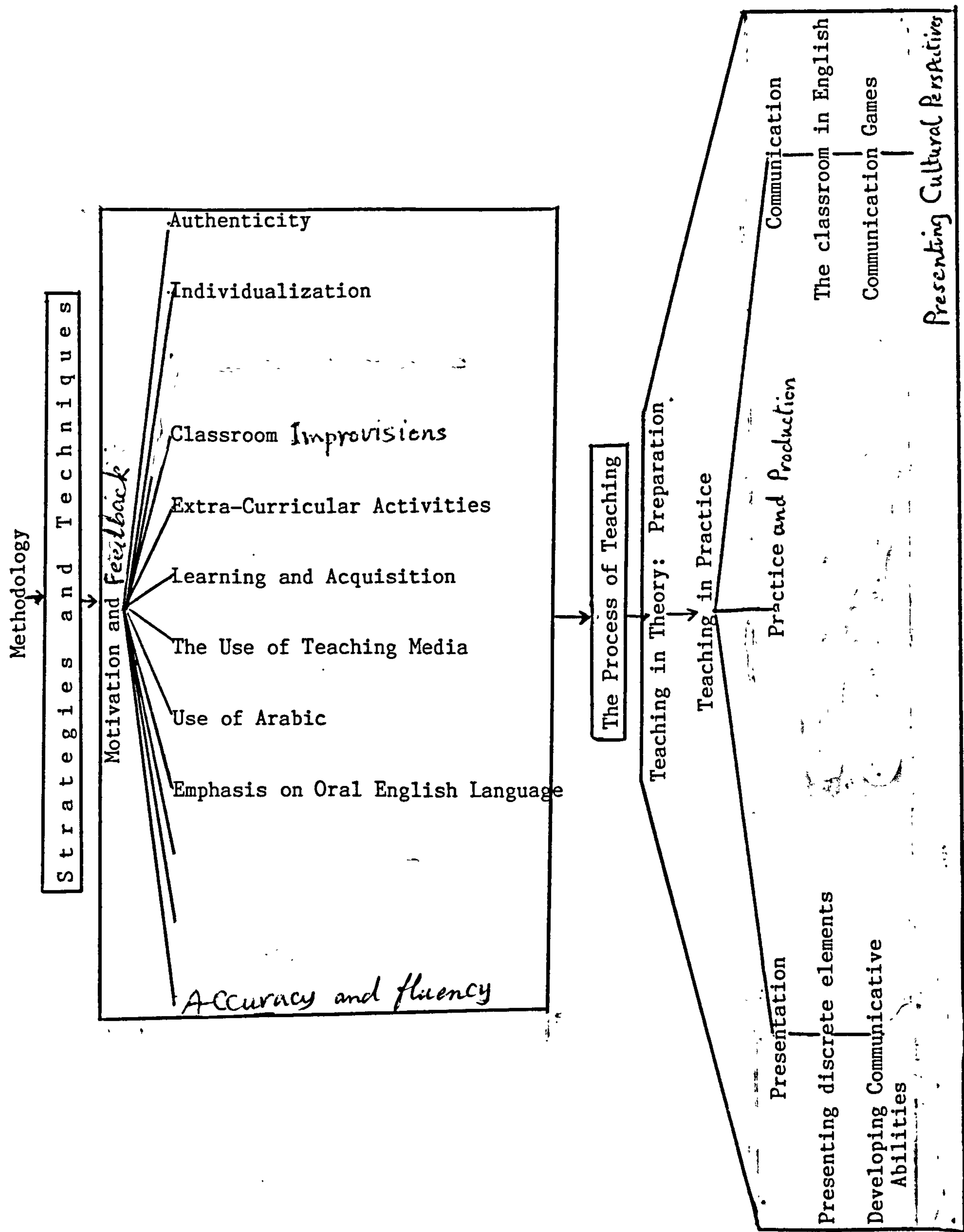
In language teaching methodology is defined as 'the study of the practices and procedures used in teaching, and the principles and beliefs that underlie them' (Richards et al, 1985:177). The Model's methodology refers to the strategies and techniques, whether they are conscious or unconscious processes, which are utilised by the teacher in the classroom as pedagogical procedures in order to lead to effective teaching. The Methodology also involves the process of teaching: the preparation of lesson plans, the presentation of material and skills, the procedures of practice and drills and the tactics of classroom interaction and communication games. Figure 7 illustrates the sequence of the Model's pedagogical techniques.

#### 5.1. Strategies and Techniques

The strategies incorporate all procedures used in learning, thinking and participating in linguistic and communicative activities which serve as a way of reaching the specific objectives, while techniques indicate the activities and tactics used for analysing and manipulating the instructional situations. The philosophy underlying the Approach of the Model mentioned in Chapter Five gave some guidelines for the Model's strategies of teaching. Nevertheless, such techniques and strategies are described here in the light of the taxonomic analysis of objectives, also illustrated in the last Chapter. The role of the objectives is seen when the teacher clarifies lesson targets to focus the students' attention on what is to be learned in order to communicate and function in English. Five techniques and ~~five~~ strategies are accordingly described to guide the English teacher's performance inside and outside the classroom.



Figure 7.



#### 5.1.1. Motivation and Feedback

There is a view which says that a learner resists new knowledge that causes too great a change to that he already has, unless he is highly stimulated to accomodate it (Clark, 1984). Earlier discussion (4.2.4.2) presupposes motivation as a principal factor which leads to the perseverance and concentration of attention that produces rapid learning. Motivation in 'Methodology' discusses the application of approaches in which both the internal state of the student's willingness to learn can be utilised (intrinsic motivation) and the student can be helped to realise social and educational reasons for learning English (extrinsic motivation). Motivating students is one of the techniques which might not be difficult for the teacher to develop since the community in Saudi Arabia esteem the language and give it high importance in entry to employment as well as in admission to studying and training. American films and shop names and advertisements displayed in markets and streets are all assumed to motivate students to learn English.

In spite of the fact that some types of motivation are innate, it is generally assumed that it 'can be manipulated and stimulated in a number of ways' (Lewis, 1982:109).

1. Socializing the environment of the classroom is one of the main sources of developing student's motivation especially in communicative language learning where socialization is considered as the backbone of communication. This entails that the teacher's main tasks are:

- a. introducing himself to the students and making students introduce themselves to each other. He should try to call every student by his name to maintain a friendly class-environment. Knowing students by name gives the

student pride that he is recognised by the teacher as an important part of his classroom, particularly during communicative games or competitions.

- b. informing himself about the socioeconomic and cultural back-ground of students. Rural area students might be more sensitive to what is said by the teacher and more conservative about their Bedoin traditions than their counterparts from Urban areas. Non-Saudi teachers are advised to be aware of such differences while socializing.

2. A student should be helped to cultivate involvement and achievement in every task he engages in. Once a student has made a remark that has been appreciated by the teacher he would be encouraged to think that it is worthwhile to improve his English, oral as written, to communicate better. Too often students do not show their real selves because they think that their interests and concerns won't be appreciated by teachers and class-mates. It is, then, the teacher's responsibility to produce the spark that persuades the student that his honest and natural performance in English is worthwhile.
3. A student should not be embarrassed if he has not done his assignment or if he makes oral or written mistakes. Too much correction on student's performance demotivates his communication.
4. A student should engage in a wide range of communicative activities to fulfill his need for doing, learning and thinking and not be restricted to only one activity. He has to participate with the class in all aspects of planning



games or activities and shall be helped to feel his role important as a negotiator and participant in class instructional management.

5. Feedback is used to provoke student's performance in order to get the message across and consequently initiate his motivation to react positively, by going on in communication, or negatively, by modifying it to the one required by the teacher. Nevertheless, feedback can reduce motivation if it is so overemphasised as to bring down the effectiveness of the message or the flow of utterances. The teacher should not use such expressions as: 'I do not understand', 'Sorry, I didn't get that' frequently. For a situation when a message is poorly transmitted he can use a prompt for a response such as: 'Do you mean ...' or 'Is that the...?'. Appraisal words and encouraging expressions on homework assignments are feedback for the student especially if they are accompanied by friendly comments. Rewards, whether material or immaterial can be used for adolescents in intermediate stage as feedback for a successful activity.

These ways of developing student's motivation to learn English are based on psychological grounds. However, there are some other ways which are connected with the subject-matter and the methodology of teaching it:

1. Aspects of English language culture are another source of motivation which bring students into contact with language. For example, a teacher can tell students about London, New York; their people, interesting places, famous areas and common traditions in them. He can bring into the class

pictures of main streets, public parks, squares, railway-stations, air port terminals, sights, fountains, markets, shops and museums that can be very attractive and stimulate students to learn English to communicate with people when they visit these places.

2. Extra-curricular activities can be used as a motivational factor in the Model to equip students with the necessary language to communicate outside the classroom environment. Extra-curricular activities are mentioned in detail later, however, the involvement of students in such voluntary tasks as writing English expressions, wall magazines, English broadcasting in broadcast and acting English plays on stage improves his language and his skill of using the language in authentic situations.

#### 5.1.2 Authenticity

Since the content and learning experiences in the Model are structured, little opportunities are left to students to experience authentic material. Therefore, in order to minimize the arbitrariness of classroom-language, communicative games such as simulation, role-play, and problem-solving are used to engender the ability of a student to use English spontaneously. Nevertheless, teachers still are able to select authentic material from local newspapers (e.g. Arab News, Saudi Gazette) or foreign magazines and stories and use it for practice exercises or communication activities. Newspapers often contain pages of advertisements which can provide the English teacher with a surprising amount of material. Holiday advertisements are suitable for teaching countries, places and prices. Radio and Television programmes, announcements in airports and railways stations in English, are other sources of

authentic material for listening. Brochures, tourist-guides and booklets provide excellent material on where to stay and things to see in a foreign country in addition to many features of cultural interest such as transportation, public places and main restaurant and hotels which are included in them. Local businesses with international connections can, in main cities like Jeddah, Riyadh or Daharen, be a source of authentic items. Students may visit the British Council, American and Canadian Information Centres and American and British companies.

Authenticity in the Model is used to promote the communicative/functional interaction of learners. It is a good source of motivation since students communicate meaning in meaningful situations, and gives them direct access to the culture. The level of students may influence the selection of material, but a teacher can use his competence and experience to simplify and adjust any such material to the level of the students' comprehension. Further, material should be of interests and topics should be brought to life for students. However, the teacher must be cautious not to include ethically objectionable topics. From the Data Investigation Saudi students are fond of football matches and 'famous footballers'. They are also interested in aviation, shipping and adventure stories. The teacher can survey his students' interests and supply them with relevant material.

### 5.1.3. Individualization

Individualization in language learning conflicts with the realities of the classroom because students are always different in their interests, speed and methods of learning. They have dissimilar degrees of skills, learning rates and capacities. Some of them learn by intensive repetition, some by trial and error while others learn



by either induction or deduction (Finocchiaro and Bonemo, 1969).

Some approaches to learning ignore individual differences because of the complexities involved with such endeavours. Others pay too much attention to students' needs and differences such as: programmed learning, linear programme, branching programme or discovery programme. The Data Investigation shows differences among students in their ages, interests and needs within a class. The mixed-ability class is a serious problem for teachers of English, but it becomes less problematic for those schools which adopt the system of streaming students according to average marks they obtained in the last year. For the first type of teachers, problems which are likely to appear concern pedagogy and classroom management. The time taken by slow learners to understand an instructional item or finish an activity is much longer than that taken by bright learners, which is likely to beget boredom. Boredom is caused also by time spent in demonstrating a point or correcting work of slow learners which results in lack of motivation among the students. When a student loses his motivation during the lesson presentation or practice he looks either for diversions - as bright learners do - or makes trouble for others and disturbs the class discipline - as slow learners do (Cohen and Manion, 1977).

The various levels of objectives provided to teachers in the Model is one of the strategies that a teacher may use to cope with variations in students' ability levels. The layering of the objectives allow the teacher to ensure an adequate treatment of those which are required for an average standard of progress for the whole class and concurrently to include others required for fast learners. In all sets of specific objectives (Appendix I.4) the average students will achieve the first objective which usually deals with a

simple target in the language. The fast learners can be asked to achieve the next one, simultaneously, which is more sophisticated. For instance, 'student tells his first name, second and surname' can be fulfilled by all students in class, but 'student writes his first name, second and surname' can only be achieved by fast learners who have mastered adequately the English alphabet, which might be in some cases experience picked up outside the classroom. The teacher may exploit this situation by requesting fast learners to assist others in accomplishing such objectives.

In communicative activities and games, however, students of equal abilities should probably be grouped together because a student would be happy to express himself freely in a smaller and more homogenous group than in the presence of the whole class or of students much better than himself. This would permit a student's mistakes to occur naturally without inhibiting his fluency by shyness. Individual diagnosis of such errors can be therefore manipulated adequately and successfully by the teacher, and feedback to students can be directed more appropriately. As a technique for keeping all students' minds present during the language games such as: role-play, simulation or problem solving, the teacher may give slow learners a check list to be filled up while the bright learners act out the scenes. The checklist may include the major as well as the minor points included in the game such as: who says 'Bring the money tomorrow', 'Does A say Hello! to B'. In discussion, advanced students can be picked to answer questions before slow learners. This gives opportunities for slow learners to follow up the right answer and assimilate in order to produce it when they are asked. Individualization in the Model does not imply a thoroughly independent instruction for each student but rather a method of

facilitating the acquisition of skills at a student's own optimum rate (Ronald et al, 1972).

#### 5.1.4. Classroom Improvisations

Classroom improvisations have been discussed in the Review of Literature - Arguments for and against objectives. Improvisations have advocates who see improvisations as useful chances for learners, as well as a teacher, to contribute to the development of the programme and progress of learning. However, these changes may waste learning time or bring up prohibited knowledge and unnecessary information. In language learning improvisations usually appear as a sign of healthy teaching and learning. In other words, improvisations are produced as a consequence of a sound interaction either between student-student or student-teacher. The method of teaching plays a crucial role in arousing improvisations and controlling their dimensions (Davies, 1976).

Improvisations in the Model should reflect effective communication that arises from changing students' habits and behaviours. Nevertheless, improvisations should be limited to the objectives preset and confined to the interactive atmosphere allowed by them. Period time is precious and therefore only those improvisations which contribute to the progress of communication or inhibit misunderstanding of English elements can be raised. When the teacher is faced with improvisations which carry conflict ideas or those which are restricted for moral reasons he has to avoid putting himself in such situations, or try, if they have happened, to redirect them if possible. For instance, such topics as sex or entertainment and pleasure places as cinema, disco etc. are not permitted to be discussed in English Contexts but if they appear incidentally via improvisations they have to be removed. The level of



intermediate students should be taken into consideration when improvisations arise. If improvisations are above the recognition level of the students they would not contribute to the development aimed at. When sophisticated improvisations appear, it is the teacher's duty to simplify them so as to get them down to the comprehension level of his students. Where the teacher is the source of an innovation he should be careful not to incorporate strange vocabulary or unknown structure. If the teacher's mastery of English and proficiency in its communication are inadequate he is advised to restrict improvisations carefully. Sensitivity plays a vital role in adapting, eliminating or harmonising class improvisations that help demonstration of the pre stated objectives of the Model. Better opportunities for improvisations will be found in the third grade intermediate when students have a good grasp of English and better mastery of information.

#### 5.1.5. Extra-curricular Activities

Extra-curricular activities are regarded by most recent writers as part of curriculum (Saylor et al, 1981; Kelly, 1986), however, whether they are curricular or extra-curricular they are essential in foreign language learning since they complement the classroom activities and give more chance to students for freer interaction and exploiting of the language. Prior planning is a necessary condition in carrying out such activities in order to achieve the Model objectives. The time might not be so important but adapting such activities to the students' competence, abilities and interests is important. Extra-curricular activities vary from encouraging students and supervising the writing of an English wall magazine, proverbs and instructions on boards, to directing and producing plays

and dramas in English in the school-theatre. The English club at school undertakes many of these activities and helps to revise learners' information and knowledge of English. Many tasks can be designed in the English club such as writing warnings or instructions in English, designing advertisements in English, solving puzzles and telling jokes in English, showing films and videos on different topics which can serve the objectives of the Model and demonstrate cross-cultural aspects of English, manipulating recipes for foods and drinks and following them, e.g. cooking Kabsa or making Arabian coffee. The English club provides a place where students' improvisations can take place, thus, all types of attempts done by the students to improve the use of English should be encouraged. The school broadcast - if it exists - is one of the areas which can be supplied with the students' contribution of English items. The teacher role, here, is to monitor and select text suitable for broadcasting. He should encourage English programmes and select appropriate subjects to be broadcast. Visits to English cultural representatives in Saudi Arabia should be carried out where possible as a part of extra-curricular activities. British, American, Canadian and Australian Embassies and Consulates might be the best targets of such visits. Further, exhibitions and libraries can be visited by students as they reflect the culture of the country and transmits the English-speaking people's thoughts and lives. Ships and harbours are other places which can be visited. Visiting ships can give direct experiences to those students who are interested in how ships work and are guided (Students' Needs - Data Investigation).

#### 5.1.6. Learning and Acquisition

Language learning is the conscious process of developing and

verbalizing language rules and linguistic knowledge whereas acquisition is the subconscious process which leads to the development of competence without teaching grammatical rules (Richard et al, 1985). Krashen in his Monitor model presumes that learning a second or foreign language is usually done by natural way, paralleling children's mother tongue development. He argues that acquisition leads to communication by the help of acquired linguistic systems, but formal learning of language features can function only as a monitor or editor which repairs the communication. He suggests that a long time must to be spent in listening to the target language in order for learners to build linguistic competence by understanding input which is compatible with the kind of communication required. The value of Krashen's model has been questioned in the light of the controversy raised by many writers in the field (Littlewood, 1984; Brumfit, 1984; Ellis, 1984): it is not the intent of this paper to discuss it. What is elicited from that debate is that acquisition takes place even with language knowledge and linguistic features during learning. What is recommended for the Model's teacher is that they should utilise the transfer of Arabic grammar, vocabulary and phonology as factors contributing to the process of internalization of English grammar and vocabulary. Unlike Krashen's Input Hypothesis, speaking in the Model is promoted from the first day of learning since it provides the teacher with information about how the student makes himself effectively understood; in addition, the student's output serves as input to his own English processing mechanisms. Learning and acquisition are hardly distinguished since progress in learning occurs as a result of spontaneous, subconscious mechanisms as well as conscious mechanisms. Motivation influences not only the ability to communicate but also the intellectual



processes of remembering, recalling, retention and contemplation which are prerequisites for internalization of structural, lexical and phonological items. The teacher should bear in mind that the student's achievement in English may depend on the same type of motivation necessary for him when he was a child learning Arabic but the source of motivation for the two learnings is not similar. When the student was a child he did not want to integrate with Saudi community but rather to satisfy his immediate physiological, psychological and social needs whereas when he became an English learner he now wants either to integrate with English-speaking communities or use English instrumentally to fulfil his specific purposes. If the English context has intrinsic motives and natural stimulus then acquisition is likely to appear as a strategy, but when it has extrinsic motives then learning most likely occurs.

#### 5.1.7. The Use of Teaching Media

In order to elicit and provoke meaningful language visual and auditory images are essential elements in the process of teaching/learning. Depending on oral or literate discourse only in language teaching seriously inhibits the interactive characteristics of language learning. Therefore, the teacher of English should exploit the media available to him to influence the nature of classroom interaction and promote communication. The use of teaching media should spring from the need to use them, not merely from their availability. The need for them dictates not only their types but also the manner of use of each of them in order to give effective results. The instructional media of the Model should be designed to cover all functions, notions and situations disclosed earlier. They should be efficient enough to portray things as well as actions.

Although some abstract words might not need to be translated into Arabic, yet many of them can be demonstrated by displaying concrete objects or sharing visual aids. Realia are very effective and quick aids for illustrating meanings which the English teacher is recommended to use whenever they can possibly be brought into the class. Realia should have two functions in the Model's Methodology:

1 - they are used to demonstrate situations for things to be talked about. In this case they are used linguistically to explain the meaning of vocabulary. For instance, a teacher can bring a pair of trousers into the classroom and talk about them : their colour, material, size etc. This type of artificial way of using realia is only to teach discrete elements of English. Realia can be used to clarify the meanings of certain structures communicatively e.g. items (Pen, pencil, ruler, duster, coin, stamp) are put on table, students are asked: Which item is missing...?. They may be used in this sense to demonstrate:

a - prepositions of place: 'The stamp is on the duster'

b - Colour, size: what's the colour of the pen ? Size of the ruler ?

c - make: 'The coin is made of metal'

d - present perfect: teacher holds up a pen, students: 'You have just written'.

2 - they are used to simulate situations as things to be talked with, hence they are exploited to stimulate natural Communication. For example the trousers with a group of realia like: shirt, coat, tie, jacket, sweater, etc. can be used in a role-play to reveal communication between the shop assistant (seller) and a customer concerning buying and

selling. They can simulate and demonstrate such meanings as: size, material, colour, country of manufacture, discount, sale, etc.

Students and teachers themselves can be useful realia for elaborating certain vocabulary and operations such as: parts of the body, e.g. hand, foot, face, eyes, mouth, etc. and the processes of walking, eating and drinking. A dialogue can be created to reflect authentic use of such realia, for example:

Teacher: What happened to your hand (pointing to his hand) A ?

A: It was hurt yesterday in a football match.

Teacher: Shut your eyes ! (pointing to his eyes) Can you see anything ?

Students: No. Can we open our eyes now Sir ?

Teacher: Open your right eye now, then your left eye !

Teacher: Did you hurt your foot B ?

B: Yes, I hit the door in the morning.

Teacher: Do not walk fast on it ! Walking slowly may cure it !

Teacher (to student eating): What's in your mouth ? Are you eating something ?

Objects and items found in the classroom such as window, door, blackboard, cupboard, light, cable, plug, table, chair, desk and air conditions can be used either as items to be talked 'about' to demonstrate words in themselves, or as things to talk 'with' to attain communicative practice of language. Such items are frequently used by the teacher and the class in spontaneous language communication whenever the teacher (or students) needs to put something in the cupboard, clean the blackboard, put on a light, etc. The teacher of English should enrich the classroom with either realia which the instructional situation demands, such as: money,



cheques, fruit, ticket, magazines, scissors, knife, spoon and so on when can be used to define their meanings as well as to initiate communication interaction.

Audio-visual aids, on the other hand, are easier to handle in the demonstration of food, colours, large instruments, big machines and amenities. There are limitless numbers of audio-visual aids, but blackboard, flashcards, wall charts, composition pictures, over-head projector, films and videos, and tape recorder, are the most effective ones used in teaching a foreign language.

a. Communicative use of the blackboard

The blackboard is regarded as an important medium in teaching generally, and in teaching a foreign language particularly, because it transposes the learner's interests from the teacher and the textbook to a series of events happening quickly. In addition to its easiness and economy of use, the blackboard can be used for a wide variety of purposes. The English teacher should remember that drawing on the blackboard is as vital as writing on it, or probably more in as much as the students - especially of the first grade - are adolescents. Drawings on the blackboard should be clear and representative of the functions and notions of English. Drawings should themselves communicate English to students and be able to transmit cultural aspects of English. The blackboard can be used communicatively when stick figures of a dialogue are sketched on it to show the roles each student takes in the dialogue. It can be used to demonstrate abstract nouns such as: 'happy - unhappy' by drawing shapes (upward - downward curving mouth). English expressions like 'have a good weekend' can be explained on the blackboard in conjunction with writing weekdays on the blackboard and pointing

to the weekend days; similarly greetings like 'Good morning - afternoon' can be written on the left hand-side and a clock showing time drawn on the right hand side. To avoid any confusion or mix up, the teacher might use the left side for drawings and keep enough space on the right side for recording remarks on the lesson's presentation. The role of the blackboard in promoting communicative use of English is realized through a display of diagrams, city-map, figures and charts (Haycraft - 1978). Linguistic use of the blackboard involves demonstrations of vocabulary, spellings of words, use of grammar-points and the alphabetical letters of English which need to be pronounced before the students write them down. Positions of the tongue in pronouncing difficult sounds can also be drawn on the blackboard to develop student's pronunciation.

b. Communicative use of flashcards

Flashcards can be used for reinforcing vocabulary, word-order and structure of English already being taught. The teacher of English can use flashcards in communicative language activities to produce language and promote communication. The teacher is also requested to design his own when needs arise in the classroom instruction. Flashcards are of different kinds:

- i) Sentence cards: which can be used for practising word-order, asking questions, first conditional or consolidating verbs and prepositions. The teacher of English can use word cards to achieve the communicative purposes incorporated in the Model. For instance, in identifying oneself or seeking identification sentence cards can be displayed as a series of questions: What is your name? What is your age? etc. They can also be sentences needing completion or





which are alike and those which are different. Pictures are an effective media for enticing students to communicate. A student can be given a picture to talk about or to describe. A series of pictures can be given to a student with some information on them while another student has the same pictures but lacking information on them which he must find out by asking the first student questions.

iii) Word and Picture Cards:

A combination of word and picture cards are used in the syllabus to facilitate the image of the message wanted to be transmitted for adolescents. Such a technique might better be used in practice and revision when one student displays a card of a picture and the other shows the appropriate word or sentence. Word and picture cards are effective media for demonstrating notions of English such as: location, direction and physical conditions.

c. Wall charts

Wall charts can be used to present and practise preposition question words, going to, has just and the 'past'. They are more effective in demonstrating the present continuous. The teacher of English can use wall charts to promote communication in the classroom by elaborating social situations in a dialogue or a conversation. For instance, a wall chart of shops, street and people in it can show: what directions people are walking to: where each one intends to go, which shop is the one he goes to, what type of items each one carries! why!. The wall chart when it is used communicatively should not be a subject of description in itself, otherwise their visible features would rapidly

be exhausted and all talk would soon be over, therefore it should be exploited for the student in order to elicit situations which promote communication. He can also teach cultural perspectives through wall charts, e.g. people's gathering, walking, talking and entertaining.

d. Composition pictures

These are series of pictures which make up stories. Each student may have one picture to describe. Descriptions are then arranged to compose a story which can either be oral or written. Uses of such pictures may be by means of description, question and answer, or practising grammar and structural points. Communication can be developed in terms of summarizing, e.g. when a student is asked to summarize a story of pictures, and discussion - when a student is asked questions about the content and related factors in pictures.

e. Overhead Projector

It is used to reinforce explanation on the blackboard and might replace visual demonstration. Slides in a projector save the teacher time in drawing on the blackboard but they need much effort in explanation and careful selection in preparation. The overhead projector is used in the Model to practise drills and activities, expressions and model sentences, idioms and some cultural aspects and features of English language people. The teacher can use the projector in presenting a series of actions of a story, a play or a drama and let the students perform them. Substitution tables and diagrams used for lesson practice can be demonstrated via projector slides. Blank tables and

diagrams can be displayed on slides and students are requested to fill them up by asking the teacher certain questions.

f. Films and Videos

These might be of little and limited use in Saudi schools since some of them are rented buildings - not intended to support such appliances - however, the teacher can do his best to make them available and maintain them. They are a crucial medium in transmitting English cultures. For instance, some streets, public parks and shops in London can be subjects of a discussion on a video tape show: name of the street; how big is the park; what is in the park; what things the shops sell; where certain items can be bought. Professions and careers such as: doctor, engineer, mechanic, teacher, carpenter etc. are more effectively described by way of screen than by word cards or drawings. On the other hand, the teacher has to be qualified to use such machines: start, stop, rewind, forward and pause. The teacher of English should be patient to allow all the questions, inquiries or misunderstandings which the students raise or encounter during watching. Moreover, he can use Arabic when needs arise for defining meanings of unfamiliar words or paralinguistic features. Homework can be assigned by giving the students a script of a film after they have seen it and asking them to write a summary of it, or give an oral account next day. Filming the students on video-tape as they act out dialogues is one of the devices which the English teacher can use to cure the students' deficiencies.



g. Tape recorder

It is an important aid of teaching language especially speech and pronunciation. For example, an incomplete story can be recorded on a tape. The student should fill up the gaps according to certain information given, or by asking questions. In a role-play, a student may act his role according to instructions given on tape. Furthermore, a conversation can be played to students where the task is to elicit certain implied information. A tape recorder as an aid helps in bringing the native speaker's voice into the classroom. The teacher in the Model should not be confined to only those texts recorded on tapes and distributed to him. He should attempt to supply his learners with a variety of English by recording appropriate plays, dialogues and interviews that come on TV 2nd channel or BBC radio. Communicative games which take place in the class can be recorded when the aim is to diagnose certain defects or treat certain communicative points. Cultural material can be recorded in tapes and presented to students in terms of conversations, descriptions or reports. Interviews among students are sometimes recorded in order to be commented on; similarly discussion in problem solving or question and answer is also recorded to be studied by students at home if they need to practise them alone.

Teacher of English should note that aids and realia are as important as the textual substance included in the textbooks. He should be careful when using these aids and realia, especially: films, picture-cards, slides on projector, that the culture of Saudi Arabia is preserved and there are many areas of contrasts between the

native and the foreign cultures which must be watched. Involving himself in such a situation may put him in difficulties not only with the students but also with their parents.

#### 5.1.8. Use of Arabic

Although translation is defective as a method for learning a foreign language, it is useful in certain situations when communication breaks down. Using Arabic as a technique for teaching English might occur in the early stage of learning English at the first grade intermediate, but such use must be governed by some rules. For instance, translation should be done by the teacher and not by the student. It is also advisable not to use literal translation - word by word - since there are a lot of contrasts between English and Arabic not only in form but also in meaning (see Appendix T). Clauses and sentences are more manageable for translation into Arabic than isolated words, except if the words are abstract nouns such as: 'honest' or 'faith' then it is better to translate them literally. Words should not be translated individually and the use of Arabic has to be at the utterance level (Taylor in Byrne, 1980). Even with sentences and clauses translation should be restricted to those situations where the use of Arabic is crucial. The teacher of English should be aware of these situations which are mentioned below:

1. in order to save period time, so that asking for an English equivalent of an Arabic word is recommended, e.g. "How do you say 'apple' in English?"
2. in order to probe the student's comprehension and avoid recoding English, e.g.  
How do you say: I am going to visit my uncle tomorrow.

3. in order to monitor suitability of the discourse and techniques used in teaching for the particular student, and if there is any desire to modify the methods, Arabic is the direct and obvious means to arrive at the target.
4. in order to clarify nonsensical discourse either in a composition or an exercise and instant mental use of Arabic is important to avoid displaying a senseless idea or misconception by the the student, e.g.

'While he was eating he was reading a newspaper and then he was watching TV'.

5. in order to redefine complicated instructions in English to ensure a proper performance by students e.g. 'Show the green colour when saying 'go' and hide the 'red': then show the 'red' colour when he says 'stop' and hide the 'green' colour.
6. in order to demonstrate test instructions to maximize the validity, reliability and practicality of the test (Atkenson, in ELT 14/1:1987).

The pedagogy which underlies the use of Arabic in certain circumstances is the uncontrolled thinking of students in Arabic when the teacher presents English items. When the student meets a new English word, for example, he searches in his mind for the equivalent in Arabic. If he finds the meaning by via English explanation alone he will drop the translation, but if he does not he needs the word to be given in Arabic to reinforce his learning quickly. Among the isolated words for which it might be better to give their Arabic equivalent are: abstract nouns, conjunction words, e.g. 'and', 'or' etc. some adjectives like: 'quite', 'neat', etc., some adverbs e.g. 'ago', 'once upon a time', 'in spite of', 'by means of' (French - in Byrne, 1979).



#### 5.1.9. Emphasis on Oral Language

Students should be encouraged to speak English from the first English lesson since communication in English is recognised mainly through speech. Although attention is drawn to the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, yet the aural-oral skills are emphasised for the following reasons:

1. The approach adopted by the Model is communicative/functional which presupposes the dominance of oral English; firstly, to meet the needs of the students (Data Investigation - Students' Needs), and secondly, to fulfil objectives stated by the Model.
2. Speech usually precedes writing. People are frequently found speaking a language but rarely write it (Finocchairo and Bonomo, 1973).
3. The students in intermediate stage have a good grasp of Arabic and therefore involving them in oral English gives them a chance to recode and encode Arabic and English aspects of thoughts and linguistic phenomena to promote mastering English.
4. Students come to intermediate stage with a strong conviction that they have to use English in expressing themselves, in seeking others' feelings and desires and in entertaining and playing with the language. If they find English treated not as a skill but as any other content subject they might be frustrated and lose interest and motivation (Rivers, 1968).
5. Empirical findings also show that younger learners are superior in acquiring pronunciation skill which is an essential part of effective oral communication (Littlewood, 1985).
6. Young learners at intermediate stage are supposed to be confident and unfearful of making mistakes when speaking in English. This quality might not be found in the same learner

when he grows up (Alber, 1980).

- 7 Learners in this stage tend to acquire language rather than learn which helps them to process information and knowledge embedded in English better than adults (Craik and Trehub, 1982).

On the other hand, delaying speaking to a later stage of intermediate might risk developing in students certain inhibitions about making strange sounds in public and make it difficult for them to encode what they have already learned to express themselves spontaneously. Allowing a student to express himself in the foreign language, which he meets for the first time, will stimulate his eagerness and promote his desire to learn more in order to express more of his feelings and attitudes.

Emphasis on oral English rather than written English requires that students should be encouraged to speak English more than to write it. There are some procedures which can be used to increase students' concentration on oral skills:

1. Socializing in English: English classrooms should be socialized in English since it is the first, and may be the only environment for working out the language. The teacher, for example, should encourage students to greet, seek and impart information, enquire, comment, discuss matters, order and give instructions in English. Through this kind of interaction students increase their language store by listening to their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, etc. The teacher himself should speak English all the time except when needs arise to translate difficult words. When a student tries to avoid such communicative situations the teacher should encourage him and assist him to convey the

message in English.

2. Discussion in English: after a few weeks of English study in the first grade and after a refresher week in both second and third grades, students should be encouraged to work in pairs and groups to practise with two-line question-answer exchanges. Such a conversation would encourage the students to talk, ask, and answer his classmate(s) questions. Students' names, addresses, hobbies, personal histories and experiences are all subjects for such interviews among students. The material of such dialogues has to be appropriate to the ages of the students and relevant to their daily-life to be more interesting. For example, a telephone conversation is one which can prompt an exercise in which students simulate different roles and fulfil many functions in English.
3. Communicative games and activities: they are described in detail later. The most important type is the information gap exercise since it creates a need among students to communicate. For example, one student has some information and tells it to the other student or both students have been told different information and they tell each other. Other communicative games like role-play, simulation and problem-solving are effective instruments for promoting and reinforcing student's abilities to speak English by means of exchanging information of language usage and use.
4. Dreaming: this is a useful technique for creating the appropriate environment for communicating orally in English in as much as it relates to the student's own interest and motivation. The student, in this activity, 'dreams' for about five minutes, and each one tells his dream and talks about it:



characters, situations, events, etc.

5. Foreign people: those non-Arabs who speak English may be asked to visit schools and talk to students. The teacher may organise certain topics for students to discuss with the visitors, according to their experience and professions.

#### 5.1.10. Accuracy and Fluency

Accuracy and fluency are two distinct terms which are widely debated in literature in order to clarify their positions in relation to language teaching/learning. Brumfit (1984) considers such a strategy as methodological rather than psychological or linguistic. Nevertheless, accuracy and fluency are integratively connected with correctness and feedback and all are closely linked to attitudes and motivation. Despite Brumfit's view, accuracy and fluency have psychological implications which are found in the sense of security and confidence in the learner's attempt to challenge the language (Clark, 1985). The Communicative perspectives of the Model stress fluency rather than accuracy so as to promote the learner's confidence and stimulate his motivation to interact in English. Students are not to be corrected for trivial mistakes of grammar and pronunciation since these do not matter as long as the student conveys the message. Accuracy matters when communication breaks down between two students or interlocutors and either one of them loses interest or gets impatient. At an early phase of first grade fluent English uttered by students is sought which may not be accurate since some pieces of English knowledge may not have a chance to surface in real situations. Correcting in this case is as important as getting the student to clarify the message since ignoring errors whether linguistic or para-linguistic can give rise to certain problems in

the future. At a later phase of first grade intermediate student's talk should be coherent showing competence in handling English semantics. Fluency as a technique in this grade is seen from the view point that when students are involved in fluency activities, e.g. extensive reading, simulation, casual listening, they are negotiating with English and understanding the syntactical rules governing it. Students should be given chances for speaking and listening to train their ears and speed organs on the new habits of English. Some semantic rules such as conjunction, declension and gender, might not be so important at the second phase which can be considered underdeveloped communication (Howatt in Byrne, 1980).

For the second grade accuracy plays a distinctive role since a great number of English structures are to be introduced in it. Fluency is seen as the ability to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of contexts' (Filmore, 1979:93). The teacher is advised to concentrate on accuracy exercises in this grade, e.g. intensive reading, guided writing dialogue. A balance should be maintained between accuracy and fluency at the third grade. Fluency is apparently considered as a general outcome of communication, hence, it is based on the adequate foundation of the accuracy established at the second grade. Such a balance is suggested by the functions required to be carried out which must show students coping with functional English. There might be a different balance for a rural community and village students whose fluency might not play the same prominent role as in an urban community.

On the other hand, mistakes should not always be treated as mistakes in accuracy; some of them are slips rather than mistakes (Davies, 1976).

Only those mistakes which hamper communication, whether in speech or writing, are to be corrected. The major mistakes which can obstruct communication are those which fall in the lexical area. Grammatical and phonological features carry little semantic information and so they can often be used inaccurately without affecting the intelligibility of communication. Verb endings, case inflections, gender distinctions, prepositions and many spelling rules are examples of such mistakes which usually do not affect communication (Howatt - in Byrne - 1980).

## 5.2. The Process of Teaching

Teaching as defined by Saylor (1981) is 'the process of making and implementing decisions before, during and after instruction to increase the probability of learning' (266). According to this definition, teaching is the interaction between the teacher and the learners which can be described in terms of different techniques, tips, hints, gimmicks and strategies. Teaching a language differs from teaching most subjects since it is primarily a skill which embodies a content. In other words, the language teacher is not concerned with informing students about the language but with developing their ability to use the language which includes their knowledge about the language.

The process of teaching in the Model consists of the teaching in theory, represented by the sub-process of preparation, and the teaching in practice which is represented by the sub-processes of: presentation, practice and communication. The role of the strategies and techniques demonstrated earlier (5.1) is to inspire the teacher's performance and guide his approach in theorizing teaching and practising it.



### 5.2.1. Teaching in theory

This refers to the theoretical perspectives that mechanize the performance of the teacher in the classroom. Preparation is the theoretical process which demands planning the steps of operating the target language, and the procedures that secure the intended outcomes.

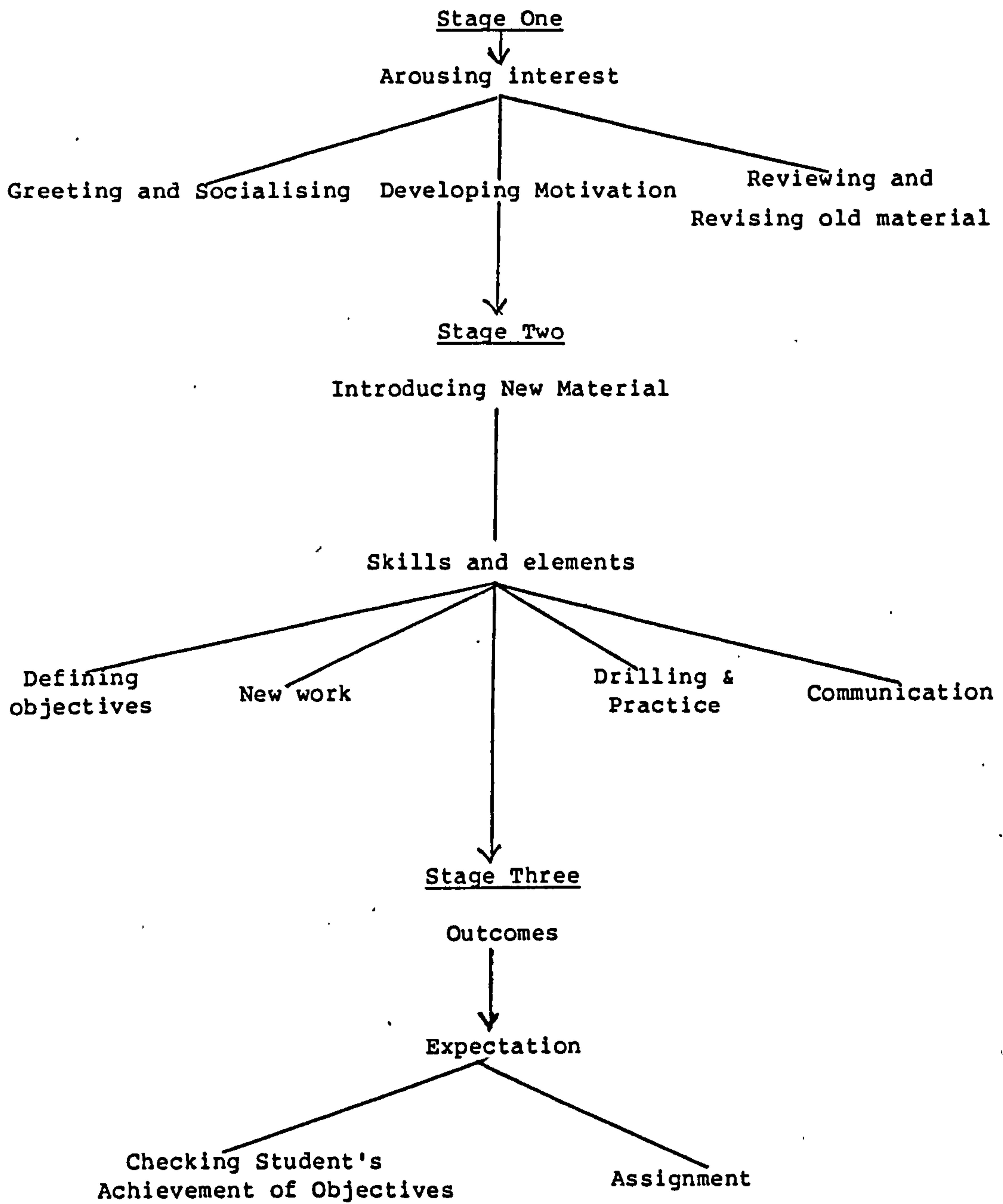
#### 5.2.1.1. Preparation

When the teacher prepares his lesson he organises the content in such a way as to bring about the best conditions for learning. When the lesson is prepared carefully it gives the teacher more confidence in teaching and subsequently helps in evaluation and self-appraisal. Preparation could mean designing a lesson that is to be taught to learners from the beginning to the end of teaching period where the selection of language items and activities is carefully made. It could also mean elaborating and demonstrating general points given in the teacher's guidebook in order to produce interaction in the classroom (MacLennan - ELT 41/3, 1987). Nevertheless, for those teachers who are provided with sufficient guidelines in preparing their lessons, planning a lesson is regarded as a matter of manifesting aspects of effectiveness and aspects of micro-sequence which are familiar to the classroom teacher rather than to the course designer (Review of Literature - Ch. 2).

The student textbook in the Model should be accompanied by a teacher guidebook (TGB), where directions and detailed instructions are provided with reference to the strategies and techniques cited earlier based on the objectives of the Model. The teacher of English should use such directions cleverly and adapt them to his classroom situations and students' needs. The number and titles of the units and lessons in TGB should correspond with the number and

titles in the Pupil's Textbook (PTB) which are meant to be twenty-eight units, each unit having four lessons. This makes a total number of two terms periods:112. Each unit should cover one or more settings, notions or functions, but it is not necessary that each lesson should do so. In other words, the first lesson introduces and clarifies a function or a situation but all the stages of covering this function or situation comprehensively in terms of competence and performance (see Terminology) may not be achieved until to the fourth lesson. An ideal preparation of a lesson in TGB should Figure 8.

Figure 8





Each lesson, whatever it might be, should be preceded by motivating students and arousing their interest. Stimulating students can be done in two ways: warming them up via socializing and greeting expressions and questions, and revising or reviewing old material taught in the previous lesson. Unsettling students is necessary to introduce the new lesson in a more fruitful atmosphere especially when the material revised from the old lesson is integrally associated with the new material. Lessons should be communicatively sequenced and graded so as to create student's cognitive unique of the language. Revising old material may take the form of questions and answers, contrived communications or reporting events or tasks. Oral revision is more advisable than written since it does not take so much time.

Stage two in preparation should start with selection of objectives for each lesson from the schemes of objectives given earlier (Appendix I). Whether the TGB gives adequate and detailed preparation or not, the teacher is assumed to be familiar with basic techniques for preparing a lesson. He should use the TGB as a quick source of good ideas, not as a set of instructions that must be followed precisely. Immediate and specific objectives are graded in the Model and it is the teacher's job to derive instructional objectives from his point of view, and behavioural objectives from the student's view point. Defining objectives is important not only for presentation, but also for practice, communication and student assessment. They are part of the criteria which the supervisor depends on in analysing the teacher's performance. Objectives can be numbered and can be amplified with comments. For example, if one of the objectives is: 'student states his first, second and third name' teacher's comment may be seen as

the medium of achieving this objective: is it going to be achieved orally or in writing, whether spelling is necessary or only the structure of the sentence.

When moulding objectives to the needs of the students, the teacher should bear in mind the mix of ability he has in each class and try to arrange additional material for bright and fast learners. Where emphasis is put on oral production, objectives stated for the lesson and treated by the teacher should imply apparently spontaneous interaction. Authenticity is another aim recognised by objectives since some genuine material from magazines or local newspapers may be displayed during lesson presentation or practice. When such material is likely to occur objectives should encircle its targets.

New work is then written in terms of steps and procedures one following another. Such steps should be studied carefully by the teacher before presentation. Prestated objectives should be consulted when each step is written in order to keep the targets and the content together. The teaching media should be prepared carefully either by organising and arranging the ones provided by the Model or by creating those instantly required to demonstrate or purify a situation. No single item has been put in the Model without being elaborately studied to identify its relationship with other items in the lesson (horizontal reiteration) and its interrelationship with foregoing and forthcoming items (vertical reiteration). For the first grade intermediate preparation should be topic-based since the unit of organisation is a 'setting'. Grammar points should not be emphasised, however; a minimum standard of message comprehended and message transmitted is required. The first step in such a preparation is to express the topic of the lesson in order to develop the students' intrinsic motivation. Arabic can be

used to express complex or abstract meaning, as such translation is rarely involved in preparation. For the second grade intermediate preparation is notion-based, however, and grammar and structural points are manipulated communicatively illustrated by examples. Functions in the third grade are also prepared in terms of what student fulfils with English in general, academic and professional life situations. They should be used for developing extrinsic motivation.

Skills of listening, speaking and reading are better to start with when preparing any lesson since they give confidence for students to use English (their new language) in the classroom. Some aspects of English culture might be displayed so as to attract students' interests towards learning the language, however, the TGB should provide the teacher with visual media such as: pictures, slides, wall-pictures, or guide the teacher to produce effective aids for the purpose. Lexical, structural and phonetic items should be stated at the top of the preparation page as 'Lesson items' to help the teacher to have a quick reference whenever he presents or practices. Vocabulary should take precedence over other language elements in preparation whether by TGB or by the teacher's preparation since they are foreign in shape and meaning to Saudi students. Further, vocabulary errors affect communication more than grammatical or pronunciation ones (Littlewood, 1984). When a lesson is revision or extension all activities, tasks and simulations should be written in detail. Pair work and group work are developed in terms of student A, student B ... etc. so as to clarify characters and responsibilities placed on each of them.

Practice in the third stage occurs after presentation in order to check student's understanding of and reaction to the material



presented. Preparation of the practice phase takes the shape of questions and answers but it is more effective if it is accompanied by audio-visual demonstration. Practice may start from individuals to group then to class, but may also work in reverse. The crucial factor affecting the process of 'lesson practice' is the individualization of learning. When the teacher has a mixed ability class he should usually prepare his 'lesson practice' so as to give priority to the advanced learners to say or rehearse an element and then let the weak students practise afterwards. He should make it possible for slow learners to profit from fast learners' performance. It can be argued that all teaching in Saudi schools, as anywhere else, is mixed ability teaching since a teacher has responsibility for teaching more than one student at a time. In the English class, as a skill subject which has many complex factors affecting its mastery, the teacher should make his lesson worthwhile by stimulating students, especially the slow ones, towards participation. In this field, TGB might not provide the teacher with very much useful direction since it is largely a matter for an individual teacher (Cohen and Manion, 1977).

Communication takes more time and space in preparation since it reflects the real use of English. Classroom authenticity should be part of this preparation, yet it is hardly precise. English in the classroom, whether it is for 'socializing', 'instructions' or 'demonstration', should be partially preplanned and partially spontaneous. A great number of activities, e.g. simulation, role-play, drama, problem-solving, are prepared to generate communication. Competitions, interviews and puzzles are some types of communication-games and exercises where situations and characters are allotted by TGB but the language and detailed instructions should be prepared by

the teacher. Accuracy is required in practice but fluency is more important for communication, so games are prepared to be interactive rather than pedagogic. *Improvisations* might be regarded as a factor inhibiting the current movement of communication. As such, they should be foreseen by the teacher and arranged according to their contributions to the objectives of the lesson.

Checking students' achievement of the prestated objectives is a continuous process which has to begin from Practice and Communication up to the assessment and assignment. Students' behaviours may not be finite nor can their performances be confined, therefore it is often necessary to make estimates of what has been achieved. The expectation at any stage is provided by what the student is expected to achieve as an outcome of learning. The teacher's preparation on student's outcomes should be based on approximation which is guided by lesson objectives since criteria of language proficiency may not be revealed in one lesson. The TGB may contain exercises or problems which should be done as a homework, but the teacher should also prepare his own assignments which concern students' needs, deficiencies and reinforcement. Exercises and drills for homework might be selected from the textbook but they can be designed by the teacher according to the types of states and conditions he has encountered in instruction. Assignments should be challenging not frustrating.

Preparation of aids and materials is one of the English teacher's duties to meet new situations created by innovations. Aids, such as recorders, flash-cards, word and sentence strips, charts, films, slides, objects, projectors etc., should be supplied by TGB, however, the teacher needs to design or prepare simple aids and realia for constant situations. The aids and realia might be

efficient but the teacher can make them effective by arranging them in a segmental rationale to meet students' interests.

#### 5.2.2. Teaching in practice

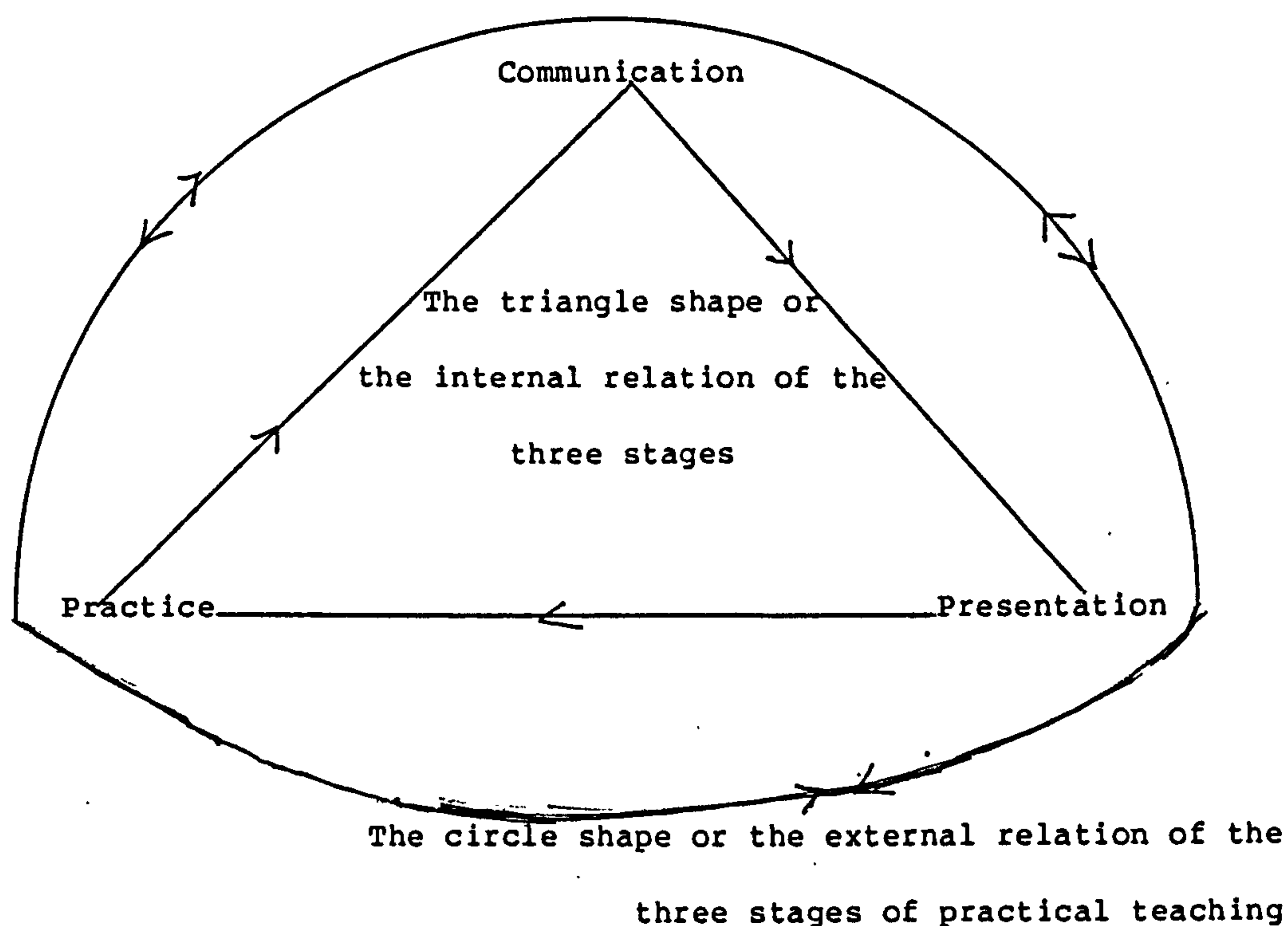
The theoretical work of teaching is done with reference to the plan of distributing periods and objectives through the scholastic year, and the preparation of a lesson or a unit either in TGB or in the teacher's preparation book. The real practical work of teaching in the Model is seen through the implementation of all the views, assumptions and requirements issuing from Saudi students' needs and supported by the strategies and techniques of the Model's methodology. Practical teaching is carried out in three stages: communication, practice and presentation. These three stages interrelate in two ways. First, the teacher consciously plans a sequence beginning with one of them and progressing through the others. But also, each stage is internally interwoven with the others since, for example, when the teacher presents a language item he is trying to communicate to the pupils and, incidentally, giving them practice in listening to English.

In teaching a foreign language the starting point should be the communication stage since the teacher begins his lesson by interacting with students: when entering the class greeting them, and when he checks the attendance and the physical and pedagogical conditions of the classroom. Questions and answers are usually used to arouse such communication, but it may take the shape of narrating or reporting deeds or actions. Then the teacher turns to practising and revising the old material of the previous lesson and ends with the presentation of the new material. From this end the process takes a new circle of practising the new material and finally



producing it or using it for communication. While teaching, the three stages are brought together in reciprocal relationship: each one interacts with the others harmoniously. In other words, the teacher normally passes from presentation to communication to practice and vice versa in a dynamic way in which it is difficult to differentiate the stages. The three components of practical teaching are requisites for each other. Figure 9 illustrates such a relation:

Figure 9



#### 5.2.2.1. Presentation

Presentation is perceived as the second important stage after communication. The division of 'teaching in practice' as expressed before is artificial since there is no rigid analysis in language instruction as such; nevertheless each of these stages interrelates

into the others unconsciously during instruction. Accordingly, the lesson starts with communication but often it leans towards presentation of the new English material written in the syllabus. This dictated by the fact that a language is a successive series of processes, each one contributing to the comprehension and use of the one before and after by facilitation or reinforcement (Fowler, 1974).

Displaying a new English lesson in the Model incorporates presenting pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. It also involves the presentation of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Simultaneously, the cultural aspects of English penetrate the body of such knowledge and skills, and thus should be presented to convey the atmosphere of learning and producing English. The process of presentation should be economical and effective. The English teacher should be economical in terms of the time spent to explain an item compared it with the total time of the period. Further, understanding is only one part of the process of learning and might not be achieved with some students at the beginning of learning the item. On the other hand, presentation is more effective if it is accompanied by audio-visual aids which should be selected by TGB but might be organised effectively by the classroom teacher to meet the students' interests. The more the variation of such aids and techniques of teaching the more efficient the presentation would be.

The Model's approach is functional/communicative so as to allow a variety of communicative techniques to present material. In other words, structural methods should be avoided in presentation. It is necessary to focus the students' attention on what is to be learned, by gaining their interests. This would help in providing a framework for the lesson as well as providing a smooth transition from known to

unknown material. Parratt (1982) suggests three qualities for good teaching: continuity, simplicity and explicitness. Continuity refers to the sequence of presenting the content which demands as a vital requirement the fluency of the teacher in English. Failure to connect the threads of the lesson content causes in broken exposure of material which may result in boredom. When the teacher prepares his lesson carefully, taking into consideration all the physical and conceptual factors which may affect his presentation, e.g. innovations, as well as the appropriate audio-visual media which usually accompany his explanation, presentation will be simple and efficient. In other words the gap between the teacher's proficiency and the students' level can be bridged when the presentation becomes simple. Simultaneously, presentation should be explicit by identifying all events, opinions or objects in constructing the lesson. Casual events in presentation should be made explicit by teacher though not to interfere with comprehension or confuse assimilation of the material presented. Presentation, briefly, as with the other phases of the process of teaching, is conducted using the sets of objectives prestated by the Model.<sup>(1)</sup>

#### 5.2.2.1.1. Teaching of discrete elements

Knowledge of English is represented by vocabulary, grammar and phonology. The three elements of usage underpin the competence of learners which is a prerequisite for his performance - use. The presentation of the three elements appears according to the roles they play in generating communication. Presentation of vocabulary

<sup>(1)</sup> See Review of Literature - Importance of objectives - Ch. 2.



comes first, followed by grammar and then phonology (Littlewood, 1984). It should be noted carefully that the approach of the Model allows minor manipulations of English vocabulary, structures and phonology which should be embedded in teaching the four abilities; however; for the purpose of clarification they are involved in the presentation<sup>(1)</sup>.

#### A) Vocabulary

A variety of methods can be used in teaching English vocabulary; such as demonstration, explanation and visualization. Objects can be demonstrated to show the direct meanings of items like: apple, watch, book, chair. Demonstration of objects is a very effective way of teaching vocabulary, nonetheless certain objects are difficult to bring to the class. A cut-out figure may be used to demonstrate a car, a ship or a plane. Adjectives and emotional vocabulary: short, high, angry or happy is best taught by gesturing or acting the states. Acting situations is more relevant for behavioural moods such as: sick, hungry, fight, or die. Pictures, whether found in the textbook, drawn on the blackboard or cut from magazines are stimulating for presenting environmental vocabulary, e.g. park, garden or fountain. Photos are preferable for teaching persons, animals and cities, yet photos of women should not be displayed. Vocabulary can be presented by giving a definition of a word or its contextualization in a familiar situation. The word's synonym or opposite can be used to present the meaning of

(1) See 'Approach and Methods' Ch.4.

vocabulary. Translation is restricted to abstract vocabulary and most function words<sup>(1)</sup>.

In teaching vocabulary, there should be some challenge and interest in the method of illustration to entice the students to negotiate meaning. The type of challenge should not be so difficult that it discourages or frustrates students for achieving meaning. Function words should be taught in the particular utterance or context they occur in reminding the students of any other previous use of them. The teacher should be aware of the active vocabulary, which should be received and produced by the learners, and the interpretative vocabulary, which need only be received. Although the objectives dictate the choice of lessons and contexts in the Model and prescribe the vocabulary, yet vocabulary which is intimately related to the environment and experiences of students, e.g. classroom objects, home amenities, should be given priority since it stimulates learners to learn the language as it is connected with their sensible experience. On one hand, new vocabulary items should be presented in known structures, with normal speech utterances; on the other hand each structure should be related to communicative purposes to serve the Model's objectives (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973). When a student knows a word it means that he knows the limitations imposed on the use of that word, the syntactic and semantic value of the word and the various meanings associated with it. Such convictions bring about a number of implications for a teacher when presenting English vocabulary:

(1) For more explanation see the Use of Arabic (Strategies and Techniques

- First; some words become out of date in the contemporary use of English which should be avoided when giving synonyms or opposites<sup>(1)</sup>
- Second; British and American vocabulary should be clarified when they occur in a situation<sup>(2)</sup>
- Third; social variation should be considered in teaching some vocabulary<sup>(3)</sup>.
- Fourth; function words are to be taught as a part of grammar, while content words are taught as words.
- Fifth; the denotative and connotative meanings of a vocabulary item have to be identified in presentation.
- Sixth; animate and inanimate words are a serious problem for Saudi students which needs much elaboration in presentation.
- Seventh; transfer of words from English into Arabic and from Arabic to facilitate presentation of vocabulary.

## B) Grammar

A combination of inductive and deductive approaches is used in presenting grammar-points of English<sup>(4)</sup>. In other words, English grammar is embedded in the first grade notions. It is more appropriate for the first year students to induce rules of English grammar from their experience when they are involved in such

(1) 'mirror' instead of 'looking glass'.

(2) 'flat' British, 'apartment' American.

(3) British middle-class people say 'lady' while upper-class say 'woman'.

(4) See Terminology



interactions as socialising in the classroom, relating to objects and items which surround them and asking or replying to inquiries of various types. First grade students are psychologically more prepared (by intrinsic motivation) to generate communicative sentences than to decode grammatical rules (Mackay, 1985). Inductive learning is also efficient for beginners when they manipulate target settings and situations.

First grade students do not deal, for example, with simple present 'to be' but rather with 'introducing himself' or 'telling his age'. Students should be exposed to a vast number of examples which embrace the verb 'to be' before presenting the rule since Arabic has no copula. The different types of present and past in English which have no counterparts in Arabic are distinguished only with difficulty by beginners of the first grade. Moreover, deliberate learning of the interrelationship of English past and present tenses causes error of analogy since they have semantic identification plus its syntactical characterization. Present simple is better launched at the first grade in so far as it has no 'be' verb, followed by present continuous. Future 'shall' and 'will' might be introduced as well if settings demand. Some modal verbs like 'must' and 'can' are to be introduced at the first grade since they have counterparts in Arabic. Although the 'articles' is a wide area of contrast between the two languages, yet it should be introduced at the first grade because of their frequent use in English. The principle underlying such organization of presentation is to make the student aware of the major construction of word groups that make practical contributions towards communication (Widdowson, 1978).

It is recommended that present perfect and past perfect should

be presented at the second grade since they are implicit in the notions. Simple and basic prepositions can also be presented at the first grade such as: 'on', 'in', 'at', 'under', 'behind', and so on, which students often encounter throughout their practice and communication, simultaneously with conjunctions: 'and', 'or', 'but'. More sophisticated prepositions such as 'above', 'over', 'through' perhaps are better presented at the second grade. The second grade is based on notions and most grammar points are presented here, such as clauses and phrases, passive voice and reported speech. Other modal verbs e.g. 'may', 'might', 'could', are presented at the second grade. Most grammar points prescribed at the second grade are represented at the third grade more deeply in order to sustain intellectual meaning and logical interrelationship. Grammar points are not presented as isolated rules but in terms of English notions expressed in context<sup>(1)</sup>. The importance of presenting structures at the second grade is justified for the following reasons:

1. to give feedback to what has already been acquired and learned at the first grade.
2. to smooth the way for the proper structural ground required to fulfil English functions at the third grade.
3. to give the student a chance to contemplate points that exist in English but not in Arabic by experiencing the settings and situations they occur in.

Steps in presenting items of grammar are described in many sources (MacKay, 1965; Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973; Rivers and Temperly, 1978; Doff, 1988), yet none of them is wholly appropriate

(1) See Appendix K - Inventory of Notions

for the Model's approach. Manipulation of teaching items discussed by the writers follow the structural approach of: writing the example on the blackboard, presenting the meaning of the structure, explaining how this pattern is different from another related pattern, and so on. The strategy of presenting the grammar points in the Model depends on the specific objectives of the lesson. Therefore, presentation should be smoothed by motivating the student to see the point of grammar by showing its role in the real-life communication. The teacher uses different devices and methods of dramatizing, gesturing or even playing to demonstrate the meaning and the purpose of teaching that grammar-point. The teacher may review the similar items of grammar that contribute to the explanation of the new item. He then models the utterance by engaging the whole class, group or individual in practising its use. In order to ensure full comprehension the teacher writes two or three sentences on the blackboard, underlines the new structure and practises its functions by asking questions which verbalize the role it plays in the contexts. For developing grammatical rules students should be encouraged to formulate rules governing the structural relationship of the context rather than being told the rules. The inductive approach might be applied at the third grade when students reach the age of fourteen (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983).

### C) Phonology

Despite the difference in the range of sounds between English and Arabic there are eight vowels and diphthongs and thirty-two consonants in Arabic, and twenty-two vowels and diphthongs and twenty-four consonants in English - students may not face serious problems in dealing with the English sound system. This is because



they are still adolescents, superior in acquiring pronunciation skills (Littlewood, 1984:66). Technical description and phonetic script, are not suitable for the intermediate students, though, some general description of the script might be required by older learners (Finocchairo and Brumfit, 1983).

English segmentals: consonants and vowels cause less difficulty for the students than the supra-segmental although students exert a great deal of effort in pronouncing such sounds as /p/, /v/, /g/, /q/ since they do not exist in Arabic. Consonant clusters should also be presented with a special emphasis on initial clusters which do not appear in Arabic e.g. /pr/ (problem), /pl/ (plug). /gr/ (green). Nevertheless, some might not be difficult for students as they are accustomed to similar words in Arabic like 'green': 'quronful'. The teacher of English should be aware of the short vowels added usually by his student before the final consonant in final consonant cluster e.g. 'desik' instead of 'desk'. Presentation of segmentals for the first grade students relies very little on intellectual mastery or logical explanation: they are mechanically drilled via mimicry whether by imitating the teacher or a tape-recorder. At the second grade, when the students vocal organs are more liable to produce English consonants and vowels, they should not depend only on auditory clues of imitation but also on a general description of the tongue-position or lip-rounding. Using contrasting features from both languages is another method of presenting segmentals and word-stress.

The presentation of English stress, rhythm and intonation is more difficult because they are quite different from Arabic (Sawwaf, 1986). Reduced vowels of English unstressed syllables may cause some problems to students. For instance /'aI et bred and eg'/ instead of

/'eit, breid, eig'//, because they are uttered as connected speech rather than single words. The fact that English is a 'stress-timed' unlike Arabic, language causes problems for the presentation of supra-segmentals where the quickly pronounced syllables in sentence stress vary according to the speaker's intention, attitude and emotion. For example, consider the sentence - Where did you buy the ice-cream? The main stress may fall on 'where', 'you' or 'ice-cream', and each is appropriate only when one particular meaning is to be conveyed.

In demonstrating such features the teacher can use either his voice e.g. saying the sentence, exaggerating the difference between stressed and unstressed syllables, representing each syllable with a sound, or gestures, e.g. using arms or clapping. He can also use dots, dashes or lines to underline positions of stress on the blackboard (Doff, 1988). Rhythm is often difficult for Saudi learners since Arabic speech is not stress-timed. Intonation is another area of difficulty which needs to be addressed by repeated models of sounds and contrasting sounds from Arabic when available. The rising and falling tones are the most important tones for intermediate school students. Rising tone is presented by asking Yes/No questions or expressing surprise and disbelief, whereas falling tone is presented by statements, commands and Wh-questions. English suprasegmentals are better acquired naturally by listening to the teacher or a native speaker on a tape or a film. There are some English sounds which have to be taught later when students have a good command of the system and become accustomed to the contrasts with Arabic:

1. Short vowels occur in English script but do not occur in Arabic script and so the student-beginner would treat them as long

- vowels when they occur in English script. e.g. come /ko:m/ instead of /kAm/.
2. The past participle form -ed when comes with verb ends with consonant e.g. climb. Student tends to be reluctant to drop the verb's last consonant -b and so pronounces it as /k<sup>l</sup>aɪmbd/ instead of /klaɪmd/.
  3. The short vowel in -ed past participle when comes with consonant as in kick -ed. Student adds a short vowel -e between the two consonants, e.g. /kIkId/ instead of /kIkɪd/.
  4. Initial consonant clusters which do not exist in Arabic and cause a problem for beginners in intermediate stage: pr- programme, gr- ground, sp: spoon.
  5. Compound and difficult words like: government, accelerator, homework, dictionary, textbook, stewardesses.
  6. The stress when changes meaning since most Arabic stresses are regular and predictable.
  7. A juncture when it is represented by consonant clusters and certain phonemes are changed though juncture: /dɪdʒ/ changed to /dʒɪdʒ:/

As Finocchiaro and Brumfit say (1983) absolute mastery of the English sound-system is impossible but comprehensibility, fluency and situational appropriateness have to be the targets of teachers in presenting English phonology.

#### 5.2.2.1.2. Developing the Integrated Skills and Abilities

'Skills' refers to the linguistic way in which the English system is manifested as usage through the medium of listening, speaking, reading and writing while 'abilities' refers to the communicative manner and mode which are realized as use via the four skills. Skills are the mechanisms of the abilities and the



prerequisites of their occurrence without which communication in English is impossible, nevertheless acquisition of the linguistic skills does not guarantee acquisition of the communicative abilities (Widdowson, 1978). Integration, on one hand, refers to both combinations: the horizontal of the skills (listen + speak, read + write, listen + write, listen + speak) and the vertical of the knowledge (phonology, grammar, vocabulary + listening, speaking, reading and writing). On the other hand, the discrete aspects discussed in the preceding pages cannot be divorced from use unless they are intended to be learned for purposes other than communication.

Figure 10

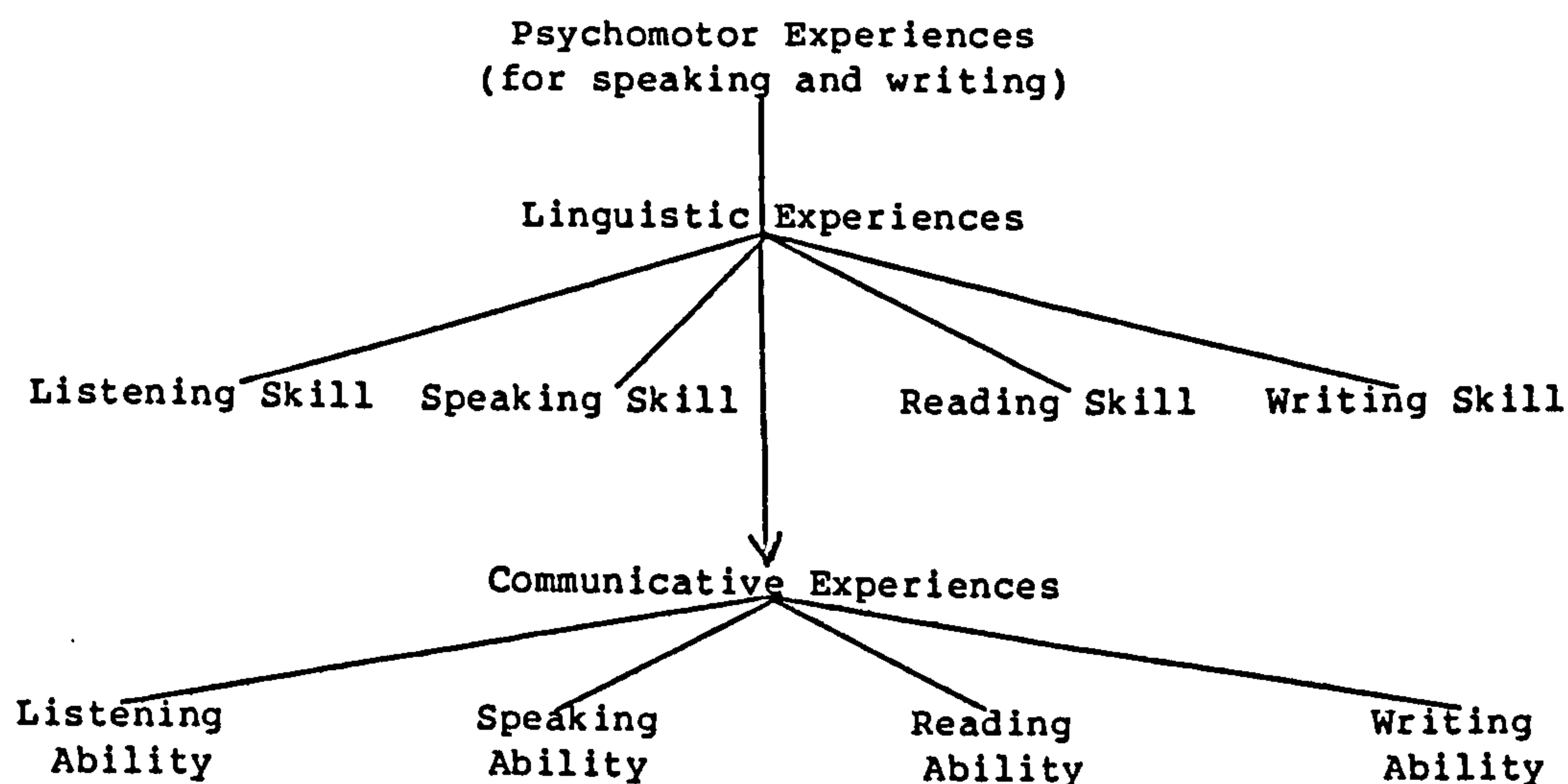


Figure 10 illustrates three types of experiences which a student should pass through in order to achieve the Model's objectives<sup>(1)</sup>. The first type of experience is called the psychomotor, the second is

(1) See 'Selection and Gradation of Learning Experiences - 4.2.10.

called the linguistic experience; both of which promote the four skills. The third type is called the communicative experiences which are the 'intakes' of the skills that promote the four abilities.

#### A) Listening

Listening is associated with speaking as reciprocal skills and abilities, yet listening as a skill incorporates hearing and recognition. All English signals of grammar and phonology which compose a word or a sentence are put under two such terms. If such signals are perceived and communicated then they are interpreted into meaningful messages by which the ability of listening is produced. Rivers (1968) calls such stages recognition and selection where the listener identifies the words and phrases in their structural inter-relationships of time sequences and logical terms and selects the communicative aspects which carry the message. The Model's strategy for teaching listening should consider the 'input' of the listening material and the 'intake' by selection of that material. Abbot and Wingard (1981) mentioned two methods for teaching listening: the first by giving plenty of graded practice of listening experiences, and the other by devising activities and exercises which develop the sub-skills of listening such as hearing, recognition, selection, comprehension and interpretation. Since English is rarely heard outside the school, except in some foreign restaurants and cafes in big cities, the teacher of English should utilise the films and programmes in English shown on Saudi second channel. The 2nd channel would be of great advantage as a 'casual' listening which can be turned into 'focus' when students are asked to investigate certain situations. Despite the American accent inherent in such films, however, received pronunciation is still regarded as the standard of listening as well as speaking.

At the early phase of first grade intermediate listening should be initiated by spoken English from the teacher whose English should dominate the class speech. This step is inevitable to prepare the ears of the student to receive different sounds than their mother tongue. Ear-training is essential for beginners since the Arabic sound-system is completely different from English. The students should be made able to respond to the phonemic sounds of English consonants and vowels, the stress , intonation and rhythm, the sound change and the English word order in clauses which are different from Arabic. They should be presented with the sounds which are similar in both languages but which have slight differences e.g. t: ت , d: د . The twenty-two linguistic experiences concerning listening skill are not exhaustive<sup>(1)</sup>, they are only grade representatives to give the teacher examples of what constitutes listening skill. This does not prevent classroom socialization in English from the first hour of learning, but a reasonable command of listening skill does not emerge unless a deliberate mastery of linguistic listening takes place.

Similarly, the eighteen experiences in the communicative division are not intended to be exhaustive, the teacher can devise more experiences than those listed, according to the objectives of the lesson. On one hand, the student is said to be able to listen to English if he understands the teacher's speech when he gives instructions, greets the class and takes leave, demonstrates new vocabulary and introduces people; if he understands his class-mate when he identifies himself, simulates a telephone conversation,

(1) See - Learning Experiences Appendix O.



interviews him or another colleague; if he understands authentic material recorded on tapes concerning aeroplane taking off and landing instructions, announcements at airport or general dialogues. On the other hand, the communicative experiences are distributed among the three grades at intermediate which means that the teacher (or the syllabus designer) should rely on specific objectives in order to designate each grade's experiences.

Today as the formal rhetorical style of speaking English has been replaced by a style where more friendly and accessible images to audience are required, the formal slow English Received Pronunciation can be addressed to the first and second grades till they master the visual and auditory signals of spoken English (segmentals and suprasegmentals). More informal Received Pronunciation might be used with the third grade students whose ears are accustomed with the Received Pronunciation. This trend is taken not only by English-speaking people but also by BBC radio (Brown, 1977:2-5).

Data Investigation shows that students respondent in the questionnaire are most interested to listen to films in English on TV (nearly 25%) and some of them (20%) are very interested in listening to airport announcements. They also suggest under the 'free selection' some topics of their most interest such as: football commentary, songs, conversation and discussion in the classroom and news on TV<sup>(1)</sup>.

(1) See Appendix M.1. Topics chosen by the students concerning the four skills.

## B) Speaking

English pronunciation is part of the speaking skill. It embraces the spoken code of pitch, intonation, duration, tone of voice and other phonemic features which are found in psychomotor experiences<sup>(1)</sup>. What matters vitally in English pronunciation is the phonemic difference rather than the phonetic difference since it affects the code of communication. For example, Arabic has no 'p' so that students may say 'bin' instead of 'pin' where meaning is entirely changed. On the other hand, if he says 'tab' instead of 'tap' the message is still conveyed and understood since aspirated 'p' does not affect communication so much when it appears at the end of a word. Such differences can be demonstrated through minimal pairs where two words differing in one phoneme contrasting in similar positions but resulting in a semantic difference (AL-Khuli, 1981). Accordingly, the student should say /b/ before /p/, /f/ before /v/, /i/ before /e/ and /o/ before /ɔ/. Encoding such features requires thorough drilling so that interval associations can be developed which make students produce a correct form.

The psychomotor experiences should be given in brief utterances within one situation till the student retains easily, proceeding with the same situation and topic to longer sentences, then to combinations of sentences since the process of encoding does not only depend on the growing familiarity with English phonetics but also on his ability to recognise clues of redundancy and to guess analogous pronunciation of the word(s) from its position in the context. The teacher should give a model pronunciation, whether by his voice or

(1) Much has been said about these features in the previous section.

native speaker on a tape, and then the students repeat and follow him inasmuch as recognition precedes production. Signals by hands, mirrors or drawings on the blackboard are some techniques which can be used when difficulty occurs, to explain the positions of speech organs in difficult cases of pronunciation.

The ability of speaking rests on the skill of talking which is the 'usage' of the sound system and the assimilation of the phonological features of English (Widdowson, 1976). Linguistic experiences prepare the students to produce English but with less guidance from the teacher. They include producing answers to questions raised by teacher, classmate or test, correct forms and patterns in accuracy exercises and games, familiar expressions and reading aloud material from the blackboard or the text-book. The transition from the psychomotor experiences to the communication experiences should run through linguistic experiences directed and controlled by the teacher, despite the risk of Arabic transference of structures or word order which may happen. The teacher outlines to the students the context of a question he is to ask or the expression he is to contextualize. Correction in both stages is essential to provide feedback in the new habits students acquire. Accuracy is maintained especially in encoding aspects of pronunciation<sup>(1)</sup>.

The two stages are prerequisites for oral communication ability where fluency rather than accuracy is demanded. Communication experiences set for speaking ability are graded according to such norms and criteria as: the instant use of English, simplicity and difficulty, motivation and pedagogy of learning. They start with

(1) See 'Accuracy and Fluency' 5.1.10. in 'Strategies and Techniques'.



simple conversations or dialogues between two students or the teacher and students which involve: greeting, identification and inquiring but end with more sophisticated exchanges of English in: reporting, describing and simulating roles in drama, role-play or problem-solving<sup>(1)</sup>. In dialogue and conversations students should emphasise smooth transition from word to word and sound to sound according to the conventions of rapid speech in English. Topics of conversations should be selected carefully to cover a wide field of interests for students to ensure full participation from all members of the class. When communication games become the class discourse the topics should also be provocative for ripe interaction in simulation, role-play, problem-solving and drama. The data analysis Chapter supplies the Model with sufficient topics of conversations, either those stated by the researcher and chosen by the respondent-students or those selected personally by the students themselves<sup>(2)</sup>. Comprehension is an important factor in discussing or playing communicative games, therefore, speed of delivery whether in a discussion or a game should be normal. The teacher should restrain talkative students and encourage taciturn or shy students to interact because personality should be recognised as a factor affecting participation in oral production. The rank of experiences as such does not propose rigid steps in developing speaking ability. It has been said that 'the classroom in English' begins from the first day of learning which means that although communication experiences are ranked as a final stage, yet they can be mastered before psychomotor and

(1) See Learning Experiences - Speaking (Appendix O)

(2) See Data Investigation - Data Analysis and Appendix M.1.  
'Topics chosen by Students'

linguistic when situations call for it.

### C) Reading

This is an interpretative ability which is required at all levels especially at secondary and higher education, thus knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary are essential for developing it. The ability to read should be developed from the time when the students are introduced to the written material on the blackboard or the textbook. The importance of reading ability stems from its role in introducing some cultural aspects of English societies to the students, in addition to its role in demonstrating the use of vocabulary and structures of English. Reading can also be used for sustaining the speaking skill. The teacher should be aware of the difficulties which handicap Saudi students in becoming able to read. The fact that English is a phonemic language rather than graphic leads to occasional mispronunciation e.g. knife (k is silent); further the same phoneme is represented by more than one grapheme, e.g. photo: fat: laugh. The capital letters and small letters pose the students with a problem of corresponding them according to their occurrence in situations. They sometimes hinder adequate grasping of meaning. The orthographic analogy of words may lead to misreading some words such as: money:many - ploy:play. The mirror image letter pairs often cause confusion for Saudi students since English alphabets are entirely foreign to Arabic (e.g. p:q - d:b - l:I). The direction of reading is different since Arabic is read from right to left while English is read from left to right which requires some kind of eye-training. The linguistic experiences of the Model provide the students with the necessary skill of reading required to familiarize them with the conventional representation of the English

phonemes in graphic forms.

At the first grade word identification is important for students in order to recognise English symbols and sound and their implementation in the structure of a word or a sentence. The student should recognise carefully the direction of English direction as well as the capital and small letter forms. The orthography analogy of words is one of the areas that needs emphasis since there are many words in English which are orthographically analogous. Punctuation might not be a serious matter for Saudi learners of English since there is not much difference in both languages. The student is said to have the skill of reading English if he demonstrates understanding of vocabulary in combined text, e.g. He is ten feet high (He is tall). This phase should also be guided by the teacher especially in oral reading when aspects of pronunciation like: stress, pauses or intonation are highlighted, with consideration of certain points in mind:

1. reading should start with good students as to give model reading to others.
2. reading should be for a reasonable time for each student so as to give other students chances to read.
3. other students should be asked to participate by correcting the student reader or taking notes of his mistakes.
4. the student reader is advised to face the class to draw the listeners' attention to him.

A model reading can also be carried out by the class teacher, or a recorded native speaker's voice, as to give an example to be imitated by students when they read aloud. In a model reading the teacher may either read aloud and the students only listen or he may read a sentence and students repeat it after him (Al-Khuli, 1981).



The first type is more appropriate for the second and third grade intermediate while the second type is more relevant for the beginners of the first grade because it:

1. secures more participation on the students' part;
2. gives better chances of close imitation either to the teacher or to the native-voice on a tape.

The stage of silent reading comes after the student becomes able to comprehend recombined English sentences. They are more capable of perceiving visually the graphic forms of English without passing through the vocal stage. The ability to read starts from this level but requires some sub-skills:

First; the students should be trained to develop their speed in reading English gradually by increasing their eye span

Second; the student should be trained to obtain general ideas of the text he reads so as to interrelate events logically.

Third; the student should be trained to guess the meaning of the vocabulary he has mastered but now forgets, or even new vocabulary. This applies mostly in extensive reading where the teacher's guidance is absent.

Motivation is the psychological preparation of the students to read. Unless the student is interested in what he reads, his valuation of the material read decreases, and he loses comprehension in reading. The teacher can create motivation in intensive reading in the classroom by talking about the topic and describing its importance in life, uses in life and general dimensions of access towards it. If the topic includes some alien components of culture, it is the teacher's job to explain and contrast such aspects of

culture with the Arabic, especially those dealing with humanities. During or after reading students are invited to give answers to questions or raise questions concerning the theme of reading. Direct questions might be better used with the learners of the second grade as to promote them to use their mechanisms to elicit answers rather than to pull them straight forward. In extensive reading the topics should be enticing to stimulate students to read. They should be selected for pleasure, i.e. stories of adventure, detective stories, aviation or country-descriptions<sup>(1)</sup>. Reading in the classroom should be for obtaining factual information, though referential material is recommended in intensive reading because it is developed on a utilitarian basis which makes the student feel that he reads because what he gets out of the text fills up an information gap (Johnson and Morrow, 1980). Authentic material is more suitable for developing student motivation, yet it is confined with some precautions and restrictions.<sup>(2)</sup> One of the crucial factors affecting the ability to read English is the cultural background knowledge seeing that the process is not just a decoding of symbols but an interaction between an individual's background knowledge and the text (Gatbenton and Tucker, 1971). The teacher, therefore, needs to determine what cultural background information is contained in the text and to what extent the cultural assumptions in the text differ from those in Arabic. He also needs to determine to what extent the English cultural information is representative of the American or British societies.<sup>(3)</sup> The strategy of assessing the English cultural

(1) See Ch. 3. Data Analysis - Student's Questionnaire (topics of reading. See also Appendix M.I.

(2) See 'Authenticity' in 'Strategies and Techniques'

(3) See 'Teaching English Culture through Saudi Cultural Perspectives' - Ch.4.

insights embedded in the reading text increases cultural awareness not only for students but also for the teacher who is expected to investigate other implied features of culture in order to validate the process of interaction.

#### D) Writing

Writing is mentioned as a secondary ability in intermediate stage not because it is of little importance but because its processes are sophisticated even for native writers. It is a productive skill, yet it is integrated with reading because writing a piece of material depends on reading what has been written before, and the earlier the student writes the more chances he has to develop other skills of reading, e.g. remembering discourse. Writing in English as a foreign language comprises several activities which are distinct in the demands they make on the writer. Smith (in Byron, 1980) suggests two stages in developing 'writing ability': assembling words to form grammatical sentences and arranging these words so that they accomplish the communicative target. Smith's stages might be sufficient for the European learner whose mother tongue is from the same family of English, that is Indo-European. Since Arabic is a Semitic language, its script is completely different from English, which entails more preliminary stages of writing before assembling words. The student, first of all, should be taught how to shape English letters, how to copy these letters to form words and how to mechanize the hand to write cursive and printed English. All these steps are called handwriting and go beyond the psycho-motor experiences which the student should pass successfully before the stage of 'assembling words'.<sup>(1)</sup>

(1) See 'Learning Experiences' - Writing



When developing the writing skill students' attention should be drawn to the direction of English writing (from left to right) since it is the reverse of Arabic direction. English letters are not necessarily taught in alphabetical order. Letters with similar shapes can be taught together to avoid mirror shapes confusion; e.g. h:n - p:q. Vowels can be subsequently taught since they are easy to hear and shape. A pre-handwriting stage of drawing straight and curved lines is necessary for Saudi students to control manual movements. Simple cursive comes and where letters are joined but they keep the same basic shape in printing. Full cursive is recommended only for the third grade when students have a good mastery of simple cursive. The shape and size of letters are important for beginners, though to shape: 'i', 'u', 'l' they should first shape . Throughout the psychomotor experiences the student can be dictated words with simple spellings easily remembered such as: door, class, book, pen. At the second stage of this phase the student should be trained to write a sound of English with different symbols (e.g. foot: phone:laugh).

The process of assembling words proposed by Smith (1980) may be inherent in 'linguistic experiences' which begins with student's recognition of the arbitrariness in English spelling and the counterpart letters of Arabic. Students should be helped to memorize spellings of some words where the graphical appearance is different than the phonological hearing: tall (not toll), height (not hight). Controlled writing can, then, be introduced in terms of writing simple isolated words or sentences as dictation or as a guide or a substitutional-writing where a word as a grammatical form is substituted by another word, a form of words or a grammatical signal. Controlled writing is based on two principles: first, the linguistic

process should be analysed, thus, teaching should be only for one thing at a time; second, the writing material has to be achievable by a student in a way that arouses his feeling of success and self-reliance. Controlled writing is recommended at the end of the first grade and second grade where a great deal of notions and vocabulary are learned which need rehearsal (Crew - in Forum, 1985:9).

Dictation is regarded as a testing exercise since it gives practice in listening and spelling. Besides, it promotes the student to contextualise English aspects and distinguishes the use of different forms and items by looking for the mistakes to correct them. The passage or material for dictation should be selected carefully in advance. Reading the passage should be timed and its content should be based on lexical and structural material already mastered aiming at pre-stated objectives of the Model. The Model's functions can be used as guide-lines of the dictation content. Content should be familiar to students not only in its construction but also in the message it conveys. The dictation-material should be divided, once dictated, into smaller units in order to underline certain problems of pronunciation or spelling. Dictation for the first grade intermediate might be isolated content words which carry meanings. The most appropriate ones for such a situation are those surrounding the student: classroom, window, pen, table, door, home, apple and so on. Short sentences might be given at the end of the first grade when the students have some knowledge of basic grammar and vocabulary and are able to contextualize simple items such as: 'I am at the classroom', 'The door is open', 'The blackboard is clean'. The more the students progress in English the longer and more complex the patterns are assigned for dictation. To avoid miscomposing dictation the teacher is advised to use material from the pre-scribed

texts. The dictation piece should be read three times by the teacher - if the piece is a passage or half a passage. The first time the students should listen carefully to the passage to obtain a general meaning of it. This step is necessary because the Arabic accent of English is not fully comprehended. The second time the passage is read slowly and conveniently as connected groups of words and sentences. Small units of lexis and morphemes should be manifested, e.g. the, a, s, es, e (plural: men) since some English diphthongs have no counterparts in Arabic. Stresses and intonation should be preserved when coming within words or sentences. When dictation is completed, the students are allowed to check their writing and change whatever they find incorrect which may take one or two minutes; then the passage is read for the third time at the same speed as the first time. The teacher is requested to pause after reading a word or a sentence to allow students to make corrections. Punctuation marks may be dictated for the second year, but students at the third grade are asked to supply punctuations themselves (Cartlege - in Byrne: 1985).

Teaching the ability to write English never starts before the second term second grade when basic notions, substantial vocabulary and a number of grammar points are taught. The student in this phase begins by writing his name, address, and filling up forms and slips. He then begins to write freely short letters, memoranda and reports which are involved in communicative writing. Practical writing is gradually introduced when the student writes: outlines of a topic or a plan, description of items, summaries and series of notes (River, 1968:241). Composition is excluded from intermediate stage but may be included in secondary stage thereafter when topics are more likely to produce sufficient ideas for composition. Concerning controlled



writing, Data analysis shows that students prefer 'filling gaps (55%)' to guided-writing. In free writing, they are interested in writing personal letters (51.2%) rather than business letters. They are also in favour of describing journeys and school picnics (58%) rather than describing objects.<sup>(1)</sup> Respondent students in the questionnaire select the most interesting topics in writing which can be given as items to be summarized e.g. Saudi Arabia, or as situations to be reported, e.g. football matches.

(1) See Appendix M.1. for 'Writing' topics.

#### 5.2.2.2. Practice and Production

The major characteristic of the teaching in the Model is that it concentrates on the ability to understand and convey informational content. The practice phase refers mainly to the first term intermediate when students need to improve their psychomotor skills of speaking and writing in addition to the linguistic skills of listening and reading (see 4.2.5.) Nevertheless, it is used thereafter whenever new pieces of English occur requiring students' rehearsal because they have not experienced them yet. The practice stage is seen as necessarily involving a limited amount of drills relating to language knowledge, e.g. pronunciation, handwriting, structures and vocabulary, which demand drilling of language bits till mastered by students. Consequently drilling can be either oral or written imitation for practising pronunciation and handwriting or oral and written substitution for structures and vocabulary:

- a - Listen-and-repeat drill: the teacher pronounces a letter (Y), a word (first) or a sentence (How do you do?) he wants the students to practise and students imitate him. There is no need to teach all the English sounds (consonants and vowels) individually except particular sounds or sound combinations which students find difficult to pronounce. The rationale is that students are usually able to 'pick up' the English sound system directly by listening to the teacher and by practising words and structures. The following is an example of the method of practising a difficult sound:

Teacher: P..P.. (the teacher pronounces the sound  
alone)

Students: P..P.. (the students imitates: group and  
individual)

Teacher: Pin..Pin (the teacher pronounces the sound in a  
word)

Students: Pin..Pin (the students imitate: group and  
individual)

Teacher: Pin..bin (the teacher contrasts it with another  
word)

Students: Pin..bin (the students imitate: group and  
individual)

Teacher: Write the letter 'P' and the two words 'Pin' and  
'bin' on the blackboard.

- b - Handwriting: this is often practised in the first term first grade only. Shortcomings among students in later stages can be treated individually. Full description of manipulating this skill is given in (5.2.2.1.2.).
- c - Simple substitution drill: by giving the basic pattern the student is required to substitute items in a given place in a sentence.
- d - variable substitution drill: by giving the model sentence and asking the student to use the prompt and change the rest of the sentence.
- e - progressive substitutional drill: which is similar to number 'd' but has a number of prompts in different parts of the sentence requiring change of words. The drill is more appropriate for the third grade intermediate.



f - clause combination drill: this is also used with advanced students where two sentences are combined into one.

g - transformational drill: the students must transform statements into negative or interrogative form. It is useful to make students aware of how they use the same thing in a different way.

The production stage is a part of the communication phase but since it requires a type of systematization so it is incorporated in the practice phase. The type of production which the students need in the Model is the bridging of information gaps. In other words, since the approach of the Model is communicative there should be an information gap needing to be filled by asking students to say or do something unknown to them. To be communicative in such exercises students should not be asked to see a picture of 'a man on a horse and a cat eating' and then asked questions like: - where is the man? - What is the cat doing? - Who is near the window?, since they know the place of the man and what the cat is doing from the picture they see. But a teacher (or a student) can have the picture while the other students have a similar picture with some features missing which they must find out from the teacher (or the student). All tasks and activities in the production stage should be conducted communicatively by setting up situations where information gaps exist. Yalden (1983) suggests that there should also be a reason which works as a stimulus for a student to bridge the gap. The reason in the Model exercises is in the instruction given by the teacher, the recorder or the textbook to students to listen, say, read or write, which keep the students working towards bridging the gaps of communication. These exercises are of different types, and use different aids and teaching media:

- a - Guessing games which stimulate students to find out something through guessing. They can be played to characterise the variation of an item within the same structure, but they may also involve a variety of structures. Examples:
- i - teacher draws a diagram on the blackboard which the students have to complete by guessing the answer and asking the teacher for necessary information.
  - ii - the first student has some pictures with names and actions, the second has only the pictures without names. The second student asks the name of each picture according to the action done in the picture.
- b - 'Glug' games for which a student thinks of a verb and the other tries to find out what it is by enquiring about his state and the state of the verb. An example i - Student imagines himself playing football; other students enquire - Are you eating ? Are you swimming ? Are you reading a book ?
- c - Sentence-building exercises where each student adds to the sentence a word or a set of words to stretch its meaning. They are suitable for team work. An example:
- Student A: Ali went to ...
- Student B: ...the zoo yesterday. He....
- Student C: Saw many animals which....
- d - Describe and say exercises where different pictures of objects like clock, pencil, staple, rubber, paper clip, cat, money, can be on cards. Each student selects one describes his object without revealing the name or its use and the others listen and guess the object. An example:

(pencil)

Student B: Is it something you can buy with ?

Student A: No.

Student C: Is it that we can write on ?

Student A: No.

Student D: Is it that we can write with ?

Student A: Yes, it is.

Student D: Is it a pencil ?

- e - Memory exercises where students recall objects shown to them quickly on a picture and then disappeared. Slides can be effectively used here where they are shown out of focus and the students attempt to identify each slide.
- f - Describe and draw exercises where a student describes to others a picture which they do not see. The rest of the players ask questions about the picture to identify and draw it.
- g - Listen and communicate exercise where some students listen to taped material on recorder and then they communicate their contents to other students in the classroom.

In addition to these exercises there is also a puzzle which may be used to practise and produce English. The essence of it is to challenge the student to think in English so as to put some meaning not only into the grammar or lexical points but also into the Communicative meaning of a word or a sentence. Recognition of a word as a grammar point is important for students to identify the puzzle's knots and solve them. The puzzle is built round a problem which is solved in a chart provided for participants to indicate the correct combinations for solving the problem.



The activities and exercises should be conditioned by the explicitness in the information content they convey in order to bridge a gap with an accurate piece of information. They should be intended to teach and entertain learners. The teacher is required to explain these activities and games clearly and may use Arabic if the need arises. He should prepare them at home and try them out before implementation in the class, especially practicing the use and the manipulation of the teaching aids and realia communicatively.

#### 5.2.2.3. Communication

Communication is defined as the exchange of ideas and information between two or more persons. In language it means using the functional aspects and means to fulfil certain purposes or arrive at particular targets (Richard et al, 1985). In language teaching/learning Clark (1985) suggests some characters that distinguish communicative tasks from non-communicative. The communicative task, to him, is one which is unpredictable, purposeful, coherent, has an information gap and has the participant involved. Widdowson (1978) referred to such communication when he was talking about 'Usage and use' (p:1-21). As the starting point in a foreign language classroom communication is more relevant to the authenticity of the class than presentation since it stimulates student's desires to interact and formulate the basis for intrinsic motivation.

On one hand real communication may take place in classroom settings in the form of socializing in English either between two or more students or between a student and a teacher. On the other hand the classroom is not always a natural environment for learning English in situations which are likely to be met in foreign countries (see Terminology). Simulation techniques, consequently, offer the possibility of extending the scope of activities and tasks beyond

those of the class to reinforce the students' interactive performances which bring about the authentication of language.

#### 5.2.2.3.1. The Classroom in English

The classroom is the important unit in a school where instruction takes place whether in terms of learning or acquisition of English. It provides direct experiences which are involved in the context of the classroom socializing and management. English in the classroom does not only refer to conversation between the teacher and student but also includes listening for information or pleasure, reading for information or pleasure, manners and behaviours which incorporate linguistic and para-linguistic features of greeting, requesting, ordering, responding and refusing. Direct experiences in the classroom can be both 'personal identification' and 'social interaction'. When entering the English class, students should leave behind the social reality of other school subjects to a new English reality created by English. The language should be fairly readily understood, learnt and produced by the students. It is advisable to learn some preframed expressions (see Appendix S) as essential phrases help in promoting communication and inspiring interaction in English. Students are then gradually taught how to receive the teacher's or student's message and react to it by trial and error (Clark, 1985). Despite the unpredictability of communicative situations yet the list of expressions attempt to embody most common productive functions inevitably used in classroom communication. Instructions such as: open the book page, clean the blackboard, shut that window, switch on the light .... etc, are only a part of the classroom communication which should be extended to include all types of information exchanges covering topics and events surrounding the social lives of the students which might be found beyond the physical

confines of the classroom. A few exponents of such communication are set out in Appendix N as an attempt to outline major threads of classroom interaction.

#### 5.2.2.3.2. Communicative Games and Fluency Activities

Where the principle underlying the model is communication and since communication means using language for a purpose through activities involving the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, communicative games and fluency activities have a paramount role in developing the learner's competence in communication. The games are not real in the sense that they provide vicarious experience but the language used within these games is exploited to supply necessary functions, notions and situations. Students in these games are encouraged to participate in activities involved in them regardless of their command of the linguistic patterns. In other words, fluency rather than accuracy is emphasised in such games in order to allow more innovations and free exponents in the language form. Unlike the practice activities and games, communicative games and activities involve the students on a personal level. The more freedom they are given to select their roles, the more communicative the play will be, and the more the gap between the classroom and the English environment is bridged. It is, therefore, important when constructing such games and activities that their topics should be familiar to students' everyday-life since this gives them a feeling that English can become theirs, related to their interests and fulfilling their needs. Communicative games and activities are numerousless, but the most common types are: role-play, simulation, drama, problem solving and interview, all of which can be utilized by the Model to encourage learning and incite communication.



## 1. Role-play (1)

Realistic role play serves efficiently the Model's objectives since it manipulates everyday situations such as: buyer-seller - grocer, ironmonger, greengrocer, butcher, doctor, taxi driver, chemist, patient, and so on. Nevertheless, fanciful role-play is also recommended especially for the first grade students as is stimulating by providing the students with fun and pleasure. Moreover, it expands the students' own imagination and develops their creativity in English. An example is: a picnic which should be planned by students and their teacher, or a plan for a pilgrimage to Makkah or visiting the Prophet's Mosque in Madina.

Role-plays are different in the design and purposes they fulfil. A role-play might be designed to have some focus on specific language used by the student to give him opportunities for using the language and stretching his knowledge of English; *here the teacher's orientation is important.* It can be free language where the players are free to use whatever language they wish but restricted by specific situations *or settings*. Both types are more compatible for first and second grade learners because students' knowledge of English is still limited in the beginning two years. In the third year students are more able to cope with free language role-play *etc.*, yet, this does not mean that the teacher cannot use the three types of role-play interchangeably at any stage of learning when it is relevant. The later role-play brings about an element of surprise of innovating words, structures and use of

(1) see Terminology

English as a result of managing interaction in English.

Teachers should be careful when dealing with such role-plays not to take more time than is fixed for them. Role-play cards should be prepared by the teacher as to include the language to be used by the students, but the teacher's sensitivity is required in this place to address roles to those who will feel comfortable with them. From the Data Investigation, roles can be identified as:

- a. pilgrim - passport officer
- b. pilgrim - Murshid (leader)
- c. foreigner - student
- d. player (football) - commentator
- e. pilot - passenger
- f. taxi driver - rider
- g. factory manager - visitor

## 2. Simulation (1)

Like role-play, simulation accomplishes certain communicative targets, yet simulation should be preceded by background information which is provided to the participants about the setting wanted to be simulated. They may require role cards to lead the simulation to the proper direction. Large classes are divided into two groups, each of which simulates the same situation, or may be given two different simulations. For the simulation to be effective, there are some tasks which should be undertaken by the teacher before and during the simulation:

(1) see Terminology

- a. identifying the problem of the simulation which should be based on the specific objectives of the Model and the characters who participate in it.
- b. writing the contextual material and preparing the role-cards for the players.
- c. presenting the scenario to the whole class with the background information.
- d. careful and sensible selection of students who take the roles as interactants and as reporters of simulation.
- e. following up the process of simulation by giving correction and advice when the need arises. The teacher may intervene in a discussion if he recognises that someone is talking too long or if the participants find no solution for the problem. He may record or identify linguistic or socio-cultural mistakes he noted and demonstrate them later.

Since some classes are over-crowded in Saudi schools the discipline should be as secure as possible especially in rented buildings where noise carries easily.

### 3. Drama<sup>(1)</sup>

It feeds the imagination of the students and gets them to experiment with the knowledge they have already mastered in English in a fun, fanciful but purposeful way. Gestures, facial expression and proxemics are involved in drama in addition to the four skills.

(1) see Terminology



The most important part drama plays is its transmission of English cultural aspects into Saudi classrooms. Students in drama associate a large number of mannerisms with people of English. The content of the drama is not only the textual words uttered by the play but it also embraces all verbal and non-verbal behaviours, features of intonation and pronunciation, movements and gestures. Drama can be played inside or outside the classroom (in a school theatre), however clothes and personal appearance might be a part of communication in drama. The teacher can use drama either to find out what feelings are expected from an interaction task, especially when moral aspects are involved, or to construct more sophisticated relationships among terms of English functions and notions.

#### 4. Problem solving<sup>(1)</sup>

Since it appeals to the cognitive part of consciousness, unlike other games which often appeal to the affective as well as cognitive part, problem solving needs a further amount of linguistic knowledge and background information for making decisions. The teacher of English should select the problem with reference to:

- a. its level of student language. It should not include items which have not been taught or practised.
- b. its appropriateness to the settings and the current events of the local atmosphere.
- c. the motivation it gives to its participants to stimulate their responses and reaction.

(1) see Terminology

- d. the acceptability of morals and cultural features it contains which do not go against the acceptable manner and culture of the society.

Problems displayed to intermediate students should be linked to their real life whether at home or at school, since they would then be enthusiastic to discuss them willingly. Problems can be, for example:

- a. arriving late at school
- b. smoking at school or in general
- c. going to bed late because of watching TV
- d. missing Fajr prayer in time
- e. praying Zuhr at school
- f. playing football in the street near home
- g. difficult subjects in the time-table
- h. school's lacks (physical conditions)
- i. classroom's lack (physical conditions)

Such examples and others supply the students with some basic, new vocabulary and expressions and reinforce old ones as a problem provokes their communicative abilities. The role of the teacher is to construct the guidelines of the problem on pieces of paper and distribute them among the participants to read. He could sketch up the scenario in order to promote competency to deal with the problem. Students might be divided into two or more groups, each of which discusses the same or a different problem; and each with a reporter to conduct and conclude the discussion and write down the suggestions or solutions. Teacher's role in following up the discussion is essential for mending communicative and linguistic gaps (slips or errors) brought about as a result of natural impulse accompanying the process of solving a problem.

## 5. Interview (1)

The theme of the interview can be selected by the student or by the teacher, but the most appropriate themes of interviews which promote communication are those relating to students' needs and interest collected in Data Investigation such as football matches, police and military schools and training institutes, and piloting and aviation. The interviewees then can be: a footballer, a soldier, a policeman, a pilot and a captain. The interview as a technique or activity for encouraging the student to listen and produce English is very promising because it reflects the vivid interaction between two interlocutors, which may involve innovations or what Littlewood (1984) calls strategies of communication. In the process of interviewing, the teacher should be acquainted with such devices as:

- a. avoiding communication where learners are short of its vocabulary.
- b. adjusting the message by omitting some items and altering others in order to simplify meanings or information.
- c. paraphrasing words: 'seat-belt' into 'tie myself in'.
- d. using approximation: 'some fruit' instead of 'pineapple'
- e. creating new words.
- f. using Arabic words and insert them in English.
- g. using non-verbal communication: mime, gesture.
- h. seeking help from the listener or others.

Monitoring interviews by the teacher is necessary for improvising such circumstances as mentioned above.

(1) see Terminology



### 5.2.2.3.3. Teaching English Culture through Saudi cultural perspectives

Teaching a language without teaching its culture means teaching meaningless symbols, or symbols to which the student attaches the wrong meaning (Politger, 1959). Nevertheless, English as announced 'is not the property of capitalist Americans, but of all the world' (Egyptian Gazette - in Broughton et al, 1980:4). English, then, is no longer spoken only by Britons or Americans but it is also spoken by the developed world. Statistical figures show that there are twenty-nine countries that use English as a national language; amongst which are USA, Australia and Britain. Further, there are another fifteen countries who use English as an official language; amongst them are South Africa, Canada and Nigeria (Broughton et a, 1980). If English is taught to the rest of the world as a foreign language (Ibid) then this assumes that at least twenty-nine cultures should be taught with English. It is impossible to teach the whole lot of cultures to an English learner whatever his ability and intelligence might be. Divorcing English from its cultures has become even more pronounced in recent years since English becomes the world's lingua franca (Davies, 1988, BBC debate 1988). The value of the American and English cultures, as the two main sources of English culture, is questioned in the light of the specific purposes for which English is widely used today.

Teaching English in Saudi intermediate school is mainly for general communication.<sup>(1)</sup> Such communication may take its location both in Saudi Arabia (restaurant, shops, companies, factories,

(1) See 'Methods and Approach' - Ch. 4

institutes) and abroad in a foreign country.<sup>(1)</sup> The foreign country could be USA, Britain or Australia, but it also could be Nigeria, Japan, Malaysia, Pakistan or Italy. Such countries have not only different cultures but sometimes contradictory cultures. The Saudi culture as declared in advance is Islamic. The culture of Saudi Arabia is the instructions of Islam which fluctuate between permissions and prohibitions (Mostyne, 1983). Although other cultures of Pakistan, Malaysia and Nigeria share with Saudi Arabia its Islamic culture yet Saudi culture is still considered the prototypical Islamic culture. It can be concluded then that when an intermediate school student communicates in English he should take into consideration dealing with a vast range of cultures: some of them are close to his native, others are diverse; some are permitted by his culture, but many are prohibited.

On the other hand, Saudi Arabia in recent years has developed diplomatic, military, educational and commercial relationships with Europe (especially Britain) and USA. For such affairs to develop and grow there should be Saudis who take care of official as well as private contacts with Europeans and Americans. This entails that learning English for communication in Saudi schools should be devoted principally towards western cultural communication, particularly with the English-speaking countries. Rivers (1973:60-63) refers to nine fundamental aspects with ninety subdivisions of native culture for conversation and for comparison or contrast with similar aspects

(1) See 'Foreign Country' in Terminology.

and components in the target culture. Many of them concern the historical structures of society, social facilities and the disciplinary interaction, e.g. non-residential buildings, transportation, communication facilities. Others lean more towards the contrasts between language mechanisms e.g. names and location of parts of the room, identification of activities. Some examples are given below which involve, in addition to the contrasts between English (American or British) and Arabic, contrasts in customs and manners:

1. 'Greeting': it is one of the topics of contrast between the two languages. Both languages may have similar introduction: 'asking about health', however Arabic has one expression for English: 'Good afternoon' and 'Good evening'. Greeting in Arabic is always accompanied by shaking hands, while this is strange in English except on certain occasions, e.g. when a person is introduced or met after a long period of time. One version of greeting which Arabic is secluded is: asslam alicom or 'peace be upon you' which should be used even in the English class as a sign of preserving Islamic culture.
2. There are more terms in English for 'farewells' than Arabic, e.g. Bye, Bye, Bye, see you later, see you again, take it easy, take care of yourself, Goodbye. The teacher may not translate them literally into Arabic but may give their global meanings.
3. Permission is another concept of contrast between English and Arabic. Asking for permission in English may be represented by eight expressions: Can I ...?, Please let me have ...?, May I ....? Do you mind if I .....? Is it



O.K. if I ...? Would you mind if I, ....? Permit me to ....? May I have your permission to ....? Arabic has less expressions than these.

4. Calendar: The Islamic year is Hijra which refers to the date of Prophet Mohammad's migration from Makkah to Madina. The difference between the Arabic Calendar and English (Gregarion) calendar is about 580 years in favour of the Gregarion calendar. The week in Saudi Arabia and all Islamic countries starts on Saturday while in English and all Christian countries Saturday and Sunday are weekend holidays and the week starts on Monday.
5. Levels of speech and the morphology of personal exchange is an area of variance in both cultures. The degree of formality in speech in English language is stronger than it is in Arabic. For instance 'Mr.' in English refers to a man, known or unknown. In Arabic it is usually substituted by the word 'uncle' when the speaker is younger.
6. There are other areas of contrast concerning the lexical meaning implied in the two languages shown in Table 10.

Such contrasts are not exhaustive, but the teacher is supposed to be aware of many other areas of contrasts as a result of what he learned about English culture and thoughts during training. The negative prescriptions of Saudi culture are those issues which are morally unacceptable to Islam such as some type of food, drink and sex. Prohibited food and drink must be known by students since they might come across them when visiting a foreign country. Put another way, such items as wine, lard, pork, bacon, animal fat and gelatine are not allowed to be drunk or eaten according to Islam so that

TABLE 10.  
English

			Arabic
1. uncle		two words	(عم) (خال)
2. aunt		two words	(عمة) (خاله)
3. cousin		six words each has a meaning	(ابن عم) (بنت عم) (ابن خال) (بنت خال) (ابن خالة) (بنت خالة)
4. finger	)	two words	(إصبع)
5. toe	)		
6. play	)	one word	two words (يلعب) (يلعبون)
7. picture	)	two words	(صورة)
8. photo	)		
9. dish	)	three words	(طبخة)
10. plate	)		
11. tray	)		
12. pot	)	one word	(قدر) (كوب) (زبدان) (سلط) (نقود كتيرة) (ضبعة تترك) (دله كبيرة) (شخص موم)
13. chair	)	four words	(كرسي)
14. seat	)		
15. settee	)		
16. sofa	)		
17. table	)	one word	two words (طاولة) (مائدة)
18. earth	)	four words	(أرض)
19. ground	)		
20. land	)		
21. floor	)		
22. cover	)	three words	(غطاء)
23. lid	)		
24. cap	)		
25. fresh	)	one word	three words (جلب) (صنع) (جديد)

students have to be acquainted with such items in order to avoid involving in them accidentally. Such words cannot be presented in contexts taking place in Saudi Arabia because they do not exist in local situations. Alien contexts where such situations occur in real life are the most relevant. Two situations are given below as examples for teaching such prohibited items.

1. 'Two Saudis enter a restaurant in London for dinner. They ask the waiter for a menu. One of them knows English, the other does not. The second one orders a meal including lard (pork, ham, bacon) and a drink including wine. The first student draws his attention to these prohibitions and defines the order to him. He, then, changes his order.
2. 'Two Muslim boys visiting America. They buy some biscuits with animal fat and chocolate with wine. A third Muslim explains to them the ingredients of these items. They may also discuss by themselves that they constitute animal fat, gelatine or wine in the chocolate.

Anything pertaining to sex, any type of walking or talking with the other sex is prohibited; an area which should be entirely excluded from contextualised material. The culture of Saudi Arabia prevents asking about women's or ladies' health, but asking about family's health in general is permitted.

The cultural insights of English can be presented incidentally or systematically. All settings, notions and functions of the Model elaborate English cultural facets systematically, meanwhile some aspects lend themselves to communicative expressions which can be developed incidentally:

1. the classroom may exhibit some pictures or maps of some famous cities such as: London, New York, Washington.



2. money, e.g., a pound note, a dollar note, pence or cents  
can be availed in the classroom, besides other items of the  
target culture such as stamps, books, ..... or magazines  
reflecting the American or western culture.
3. films, strips and slides may be exhibited from time to time  
in the class or on the school theatre for showing some  
aspects of English culture. Letters can be a very  
effective means for reflecting the target culture.

**CHAPTER      SIX**

**MODEL'S   PERSPECTIVES ON TEACHER EDUCATION**

**AND INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION**

Teacher education and instructional supervision are part of curriculum planning since both the teacher and supervisor are involved in the process of instruction (see Review of Literature). Chapter Six discusses the qualifications and competence of the current English teachers for implementing the Model, and the requirements for new recruits in Colleges of Education. It also discusses the type of supervision called for by the Model's communicative approach and describes some activities for both pre- and in-service teacher training.

#### 6.1. English Teacher Education

English teachers in Saudi Arabia should be trained according to certain norms and qualifications. Their selection has to be related to particular characteristics such as: attitude, motivation, abilities, knowledge of English and their readiness for the career.

##### 6.1.1. Pre-training Qualifications

Qualification in this part involves the attitude and interest of the applicant towards English language and people. They also involve the applicant's aptitude, the predictable skills and knowledge of English which characterise the capability of the applicant to join English departments.

6.1.1.1. Applicants' attitudes and interests towards English language and culture are expected to be positive by virtue of the position of English as an international language and as a vehicle for imparting and understanding modern technology. It has been argued earlier (Syllabus Constraints - The Model) that the people of Saudi Arabia have neutral attitudes towards English; it is most likely that such feelings are reflected in the attitudes of the English departments' applicant as far as he is a member of the society.



There are some language attitude scales such as that of Gardner and Lambert (1972) which are used to measure students' attitudes towards English, but they cannot be used with applicants to English departments because of the dangers of falsification. An interview is a more effective tool for revealing applicants' feelings and attitudes.

6.1.1.2. An applicant's aptitude towards English can be assessed by a test to measure his ability to identify and remember English phonology and the structural function of English morphemes. The test also clarifies the applicant's inductive or deductive method in learning English and how good is his memory for retaining and reciting words and rules in new structures. The scores of the secondary certificate in English do not always show the students' command of English because the construction of the items of tests lacks validity. Tests usually concentrate on grammar-points and lexis; however English phonology is usually absent in such tests. The aptitude of the applicant towards English can be either measured by: 'The Modern Language Aptitude Test' by Carrol and Sapon, 1958, or by the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery (Pimsleur, 1966) after adaption of levels to meet the applicant's level as a secondary school graduate.

6.1.1.3. An adequate knowledge of English should be required in the criteria for selecting the applicant since his proficiency indicates his immediate capability to cope in the subject matter of English. There are many proficiency tests which can indicate the applicant's level of achievement with reference to the type of courses given in training e.g. Common Concepts Foreign Language Test, 1962, MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests, 1963, Pimsleur Modern Foreign-Language Proficiency Tests, 1967, ELTS Tests, 1982 and Davies

Tests, 1984. Although such tests are originally designed to measure the knowledge and skills needed to place the students in colleges yet their material can be adapted to suit applicants who are secondary school leavers. Nevertheless, there should be two sections of test: one which measures the applicant's linguistic competence while the other should measure his communicative performance. This entails syntax, semantic and phonology of English among the knowledge of English and the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing among the abilities of communication. An oral test or interview can be held with the applicant to assess his competence in accuracy and fluency in addition to a consideration of the socio-cultural aspects. Proficiency tests for applicants should be carefully constructed to include only the substance that has been mastered in both intermediate and secondary school (Valette, 1967).

#### 6.1.2. Pre-service Training

Qualifications in this part refer to the subject-matter competence, knowledge of English Arabic contrasts, target and native cultures, ELT Methodology and class pedagogy and management.

#### 6.1.3. Experienced Teachers of English

Any innovation in Education should begin with the teacher well before actual implementation of material takes place since the quality of teacher preparation is a significant factor in determining the degree of programme success. Hawkins (1981) stated that:

"reform movements may come and go, but real progress in language teaching must depend on the quality of the teachers"

(286)

Therefore, for effective implementation of the Model, current English teachers as well as new recruits should be prepared professionally to use the communicative approach.

It has been reported before (4.2.4.3.) that qualifications of English teachers ranged from B.A. to diploma in English, with a few of them having M.A. But more important than the range of qualifications is the very wide range of experience of using English communicatively that teachers have. While some teachers trained, at some level, in English speaking countries, and more have at some time benefitted from contact with native speakers, it is still true that most teachers have had little or no personal contact with English native speakers in their professional life; continuing in-service provision is the only way to overcome this problem. In the short term, the major problems which the training programmes will have to face in introducing the Model are the negative attitudes of experienced teachers towards the change and their lack of competence in operating efficiently the communicative/functional approach.

#### 1. Attitudes of Teachers:

It will not be easy to convince all teachers to accept the Model's communicative methods and principles and throw away their traditional techniques. For them, the Model would be both a problem, since they will have had limited experience of the use of authentic English in an appropriate cultural and social context, and a challenge because:

- a) they will feel less at ease than with the structural syllabus where their task is more clear cut than with the communicative syllabus.
- b) they will feel unnecessarily exposed when all what they have to do is not precisely specified and they are required to think out lessons for themselves.



c) assessment of learners' progress is not as simply carried out as by the structural syllabus.

## 2. Lack of competence:

One of the issues raised by English supervisors is that teachers lack competence in English usage because of their lack of ability to read and so to accumulate the lexical and structural features of modern English. Those inadequacies might handicap their performance in language in use and make them unable to handle communicative contexts appropriately. These two problems must be carefully addressed in any in-service programme.

### 6.1.4. Training Programme

It will be necessary to retrain teachers to cope with the new material of the Model (textbooks, teaching aids) and communicative methodology. It is suggested that a retraining programme might last four weeks, three hours per day, at the beginning of the scholastic year. The instructors might be: supervisors, master teachers, teacher trainers from the college of education or consultants from the Ministry of Education, British Council and American Cultural Centre. The programme should emphasise the Model's classifications and sub-classifications of objectives and the methods of teaching them communicatively. It should, however, also address the inadequacies of the teachers' competence in language usage and the performance in language in use by including sessions on English elements such as structures and phonology and the language abilities of communicative listening, speaking, reading and writing. Table 11 illustrates a structure for the training programme and a plan for each week scheduled on time appointed for the training. The programme is intended:

TABLE 11

# The Structure of The Syllabus for Training Experienced Teachers

## Language Refresher Courses

## Orientation Pedagogic Programme

### 1st Week:

1. The Present Tenses
2. The Past Tenses
3. The Conditionals
4. Pronunciation:  
consonants and vowels
5. Developing teachers'  
oral fluency

1. Communicative objectives of  
the Model
2. Model's functions, notions,  
situations
3. Communicative listening  
and speaking
4. Communicative reading
5. Communicative writing

### 2nd Week:

1. Developing teachers'  
oral fluency
2. Sounds and spelling
3. Stress, rhythm and  
intonation
4. Modal verbs
5. The Present Perfect  
Tenses

1. Teaching grammar  
communicatively
2. Teaching vocabulary  
communicatively
3. Mistake Correction
4. Meaningful Practice
6. Asking Questions

## Orientation Pedagogic Programmes

## Workshop and Lesson Demonstrations

### 3rd Week:

1. Using dialogues  
communicatively
2. Making and using aids  
communicatively
3. Role-play
4. Simulation
5. Dramatization

1. Lesson Demonstration
2. Workshop
2. Workshop
3. Workshop
4. Workshop

### 4th Week:

1. Planning a lesson
2. Classroom in English
3. Study Skills
4. Self Evaluation
5. Classroom Testing

1. Workshop
2. Lesson Demonstration
3. Workshop
4. Workshop
5. Workshop

1. to help teachers realise the communicative use of English by exploring its role in social, interpersonal and educational purposes in contemporary life inside and outside Saudi Arabia. The sets of objectives in the Model should be the subject of discussion between teachers and instructors and efforts should be exerted to assist teachers not only to assimilate them but also to work out such objectives in order to be satisfied with the change in the approach from structural to communicative.
2. to help teachers argue the prominence of each objective and suggest other exponents for some of them which they think could be incorporated in the syllabus. Appreciating and encouraging teachers' participation in developing the Model's implementation would build confidence in them as participants in and contributors to the Model.
3. to help teachers refresh and revise their knowledge of English syntax and semantics. The first two weeks of the programme concentrate on the linguistic competence of the teacher as an access to his communicative competence. The language course should supply a teacher with the modern English knowledge and brush up his stored knowledge so that he can manipulate the Model's notions communicatively.
4. to help teachers accommodate the new techniques and strategies of the communicative approach to the situations they face in their classes. Communicative games such as simulation, role play or problem solving should be introduced and practised by teachers so that they can form clear descriptions of the Model's pedagogical framework. Even the steps and procedures of conducting such games and



workshops should be identified for teachers.

5. to help teachers conduct valid assessment of students' achievements by drawing their attention to the role played by the aural-oral skills in communication. Criteria for such assessments should be determined, taking into consideration all the circumstances, shortcomings and facilities which handicap or help their performance.

These targets of the programme aim at surmounting the two major problems of experienced teacher training but there are still two dilemmas which can apply to the Model's physical application:

1. Classrooms in Saudi schools (especially rented rooms) are not designed for language classes. Seats are set in rows where students all face in one direction towards the blackboard. Communicative group work and pair work cannot be carried out efficiently because the arrangement of seats does not allow students to face each other and does not allow a teacher to move to orient interaction in communicative games. Moreover, carrying out games (e.g. simulation, role play) in such classrooms may result in noise which affects the neighbouring classes and interferes with their lessons.

To solve this problem, there must be English classrooms specially designed for teaching English which are permanently kept equipped with recorders, video, charts, wallsheets, cassettes, etc. The seats of the classrooms have to be flexible so as to allow any kind of arrangements required by situations, and easy movement of the teacher among them for orienting instruction. With proper timetabling these classrooms can be assigned for all English periods

in the day. Such rooms would be attractive for both teachers and students since they feel that they are in the environment of the foreign language. The periods of English can be doubled (to ninety minutes instead of forty-five) in order to continue from presentation to practice to communication which usually takes longer than the time fixed for the periods. Patterns of English language culture such as wall magazines, real pictures, English proverbs etc. can have enough space on walls without being disturbed by other teachers.

In the current situation, the teacher of English can still rearrange seats as required for communicative activities. He can use whatever space is available to hang wall magazines and English posters, so as to reflect the culture of the language he teaches and use them to motivate the communicative performance of his students.

2. The lack of audio-visual aids in English classrooms causes another problem for teachers in trying to follow the communicative approach. The problem can be solved if a language classroom is designated so that materials and aids, whether provided by the Ministry of Education or made by the teacher (students), can be kept safely and used constantly. Any teacher now should at least use the classroom cupboard (if one exists) or the staffroom to store valuable aids such as cassettes and videos.

#### 6.1.5. Diagnostic Seminars and Meetings

One of the issues raised in the Data Investigation was that regular conferences and meetings are rarely if ever, held between teachers and supervisors. The supervisors' answer is that teachers do not come to such meetings even if they are carried out during their working hours. Having discussed this matter, personally, with teachers of English they replied that most meetings and conferences

held in the past by supervisors were fruitless, incompetent and ineffective since most of the suggestions given by supervisors were theoretical rather than practical and did not take adequately into account the actual circumstances of the schools. They added that meetings and conferences became boring since all of the problems, ideas, suggestions and recommendations are only repetitions of well tried ideas.

For seminars and meetings to be carried out effectively:

1. they should be well planned in advance and their topics for discussion should be carefully scheduled at suitable times each month or so.
2. enthusiasm towards the profession of teaching should be created in teachers by means of:
  - a) developing their motivation towards issues they believe worth commenting on.
  - b) maintaining their interest when they feel that certain topics should be added to the discussion or presentation of the seminars.
  - c) presenting a variety of subjects for argument in meetings and seminars so that each group of teachers find their interests satisfied.
3. in diagnostic meetings major problems which most teachers are involved in should be focussed on, while minor problems or special cases should be discussed personally so that other teachers do not get bored.
4. the discourse used in such meetings has to be discussion and exchange of ideas and experiences rather than instruction because teachers accept only those suggestions they are satisfied with; those which are imposed on them



are unlikely to be carried out effectively.

Through regular seminars and meetings teachers can meet each other, introduce themselves to newcomers to the profession, and inspire each other with new and modern ideas for teaching English as a foreign language. Semi-conferences in this sense are mainly diagnostic rather than prescriptive since each teacher is encouraged to talk and discuss his experiences of adapting the new communicative approach of the Model. The content of local bulletins and pamphlets should be discussed before they are printed and circulated. One of the major contributions of these meetings is the refining and discussing of the suggestions in the Ministry's bulletins and directives to teachers of English. Instructions and guidelines in the circulars should be adapted to achieve the communicative purposes of the Model in terms of objectives, functions, notions and situations. The teachers' readiness should be monitored in such meetings, and those who seem reluctant to participate because of their lack of competence in the skills of communication should be encouraged to improve their standard of communicative English by reading, listening to radio programmes and watching TV films. They should be asked to use English with their colleagues at school.

Diagnostic meetings should also encourage regular visits between teachers since these stimulate teachers to prepare and perform better in the classroom. A visit by a colleague in the same school would encourage the teacher to create better situations where English can be used communicatively than those he saw in his colleague's class. Visits to observe in neighbouring schools may also sometimes be arranged. Further advantages of such visits would be the exchange of experiences and the expansion of knowledge and information. Supervisors during official school visits should keep records of such

visits in order to discuss their outcomes in the meetings and evaluate their advantages for the development of learning.

#### 6.1.6. In-service Training and Post-graduate Development

Saudi teachers in general, and English teachers in particular, like to see a recognised certificate or diploma at the end of their training. Certificates are highly appreciated among Saudis (Joy, 1985) and it is recommended that in-service training should give those who attend and participate in the course a certificate for prestige and as motivation to attend other in-service courses in future. Perhaps three courses of in-service training could count for a teacher as a grade of the 'Level system' which is implied in the new teacher's salary system. But graduate courses can also be offered by universities and training colleges where leavers can be granted a post-graduate diploma leading to master courses in future. Such courses could be run as part-time studies.

An intensive course for in-service training can be carried out during the school holiday, preferably in the first months.

The training can be carried out in the morning hours (4 or 5 hours a day) for four weeks. The same course structure as that used by the training programme can apply for the In-service Programme, with the inclusion of new information, ideas, techniques and language knowledge brought into the field. The following are suggested sources of data for such a programme.

1. The video recordings of actual lessons which are made in the same contexts that teachers work in. Each lesson on a tape should deal with a certain technique or strategy incorporated in the Model e.g. use of Arabic, *accuracy and fluency* authenticity, etc. These thematic modules are discussed with reference to various situations teachers may encounter

during teaching.

2. Outlines of lesson plans where teachers are asked to perform tasks based on the outlines. One task might be performed by more than one teacher to compare and assess different situations of teaching. Other teachers sit discussing various parts of their colleagues' performance from the communicative view of teaching.
3. Model samples of student's assignments can be used to develop teacher's awareness of the best communicative techniques of giving homework.
4. ELT books and journals which provide an immense amount of material on the communicative teaching of English with some case studies and experimental projects are an invaluable treasure of others' experiences in the field of teaching English as a foreign language.

The discourse which can be used for in-service training varies from lectures, individual assignments for teachers to demonstration of a particular technique from a trainer. It should also incorporate panel discussion, workshops and elicitation of teachers' opinions on specific points concerning the implementation of the Model. The trainer in in-service courses can use a number of tasks and operations which should be performed by the teachers such as: comparing two lesson plans, evaluating lessons recorded on video-tapes, improving particular case studies on communicative teaching of English and completing procedures required for teaching communicative speaking, reading etc.

One major problem which any in-service training programme encounters, whether intensive or extensive, is that teachers do not value them highly, and so do not regularly attend. Some teachers



think that the 'teacher's guide-book' is enough to implement a new syllabus without attending any intensive courses, while in extensive programmes (regular meetings and conferences) they may excuse their absence by claiming 'pressure of business'. To achieve a considerable degree of attendance by teachers, the course should be given in the first month of the year at a rate of three hours per day from 7 o'clock to 10 to ensure that most teachers have sufficient time (5 hours from leaving school) to do their own business or take a rest. The training course should be compulsory for all teachers of English and both attendance and participation can be promoted by using the annual teacher assessment to record attendance and contribution to meetings.

The diagnostic meetings and seminars should stimulate teachers intrinsically by:

- a) making them feel that the meetings are held to help them overcome their problems and find ways to make their teaching more enjoyable for students and teacher.
- b) increasing the self-confidence of those teachers who are unable to get the best out of the communicative approach of the Model. Self-confidence is increased by praising teachers' suggestions and performances.
- c) rewarding teachers (e.g. names written on the honour board) when their attendance and participation are recognised as contributing to the improvement of the Model's implementation.
- d) encouraging the teacher to publish articles in English newspapers in Saudi Arabia or to subscribe to any journal of teaching english as a foreign language abroad.

Teachers in in-service training can be motivated by:

- a) material rewarding of teachers (e.g. a grant) who attend and participate in the course.
- b) awarding those who attend regularly and perform well in such a course a grade in their professional cadre.
- c) promoting some of them to be head teachers or supervisors when their regular attendance and participation are witnessed by the course instructor as being major and significant contributions.

#### 6.1.7. English Language Competence

Competence is taken here as defined by Hymes (1962) to mean knowledge and the skill of using this knowledge to fulfil certain functions. Corder (1973) and Strevens (1977) refer to two types of knowledge which a language teacher should possess; cognitive and performative. Cognitive refers to the linguistic components of the language while performative involves the use of the language for communication. Trainees in faculties of education should have sufficient knowledge in linguistics: structures, lexis, phonology. If the trainee knows the lexical, phonological, graphological, syntactic and semantic systems of English he knows English cognitively. Cognitive knowledge of English is essential for correcting students' mistakes. It is also important to analyse and classify the errors made by students in order to remedy them. Constructing tests requires fairly thorough knowledge of the interrelation systems of English. The linguistic content described in the Model dictates that in order to impart such competence to learners teachers themselves should have language competence to a greater degree than that expected from their learners. Inventories of structures, vocabulary and phonology are included in teacher education courses as a part of linguistic competence. More should be

added in the three areas depending on whether the teacher is expected to teach only in intermediate stage or in secondary level, sub-levels and vocational schools as well. Performative knowledge indicates the real use of the spoken and written forms of English which carry communication: its importance in teaching cannot be overestimated. The ability to teach English involves not only the system of the language but also how this system operates in communication. Teachers should be competent in using English fluently as they are models for their students in the communicative use of language. Mastery of wide areas of grammar and lexis are recommended to deal with innovations which may arise. In addition to their job as a teacher they might be asked to show foreign visitors around the school, to help a friend with an application overseas or to clarify to a relative the instructions of using a medicine. Three major roles, therefore, can be identified for a teacher of English: as an analyst, a teacher and a user of English. When the teacher is prepared as an analyst applied linguistics are the components of his course which contain: grammar, pronunciation, psycho-linguistic, socio-linguistic, phonology, theories of linguistic and contrastive linguistics. On the other hand when he is prepared as a user of English Language improvement is necessary to turn knowledge of English into practical use. Language improvement in this sense consists of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Each one of these might be sub-divided into components such as: composition, translation, phonetics, reading comprehension, functional English, notional English and situational English. Applied linguistics and language improvement are integrated in one framework but can be suitably pedagogically organised for beginners, intermediate and advanced trainees. Grammar for example can be divided into basic or general and advanced. Phonetics can also be



graded with reference to its theoretical framework and practical framework. Since the Model designed for intermediate stage is functional/communicative integration of applied linguistics with English improvement means that trainees need to be able to recognise when the same English language element: structure, word or pronunciation is used to realise different functions notions or situations (Edge, 1988: ELT Vol. 42/1:10).

#### 6.1.8. English Arabic Contrasts

Trainees should be aware of the contrasts between English and Arabic in substance, form and semantics *in addition to the contrasts in situations*. Such contrasts are important to understand what transference or interference come from Arabic into English in the area of phonology, orthography, morphology, syntax and lexis. In order to hinder interferences and facilitate transferences trainees should know, for example, that 'stand' and 'stop' have two distinct meanings in English but both are represented by one word in Arabic ( *قف* ). Difference between English and Arabic exist also in sentence-order, word-order, lexical and grammatical meaning and the stylistic usage. Components of this course can be either introduced explicitly under the heading of contrasts or differences or embedded in translation courses.

#### 6.1.9. English and Arabic Cultures

An English teacher should bear in mind that English reflects the way of life of the English-speaking people which is in many areas different from the way his students behave. Although English culture can be divorced from the language itself (BBC Discussion of IATEFL Conference, Edinburgh, 1988), yet some aspects of British or American cultures are necessary for trainees to:

- 1 - identify the of verbal behaviours which are different from those in Arabic, ~~... Culture, Appendix 1.~~
- 2 - identify the non-verbal behaviours which are distinctive from Arabic.
- 3 - reveal the socio-cultural meanings which have contrary senses in Arabic.
- 4 - simplify socio-cultural and para-linguistic behaviours that exist in English.
- 5 - be aware of those features which are culturally or politically prohibited in Saudi society.
- 6 - understand the cultural meaning of English items and use it for effective communication without abusing the native culture of Saudi Arabia.
- 7 - avoid mistranslation which may occur from English into Arabic.

For all these reasons English language culture should be part of the course. It can be conveyed in literature, drama or play, or through situations and settings that take place in a foreign country. On the other hand, teachers of English, like teachers of other subjects, should remember that one of the important goals of Saudi education is to maintain Islamic teachings and inculcate them in the minds of the learners (Abu-Taleb, 1982).

#### 6.1.10 ELT Methodology

In addition to the command that the teacher of English should possess, he also should be able to teach English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabian schools. The target learners are Arabic-speaking adolescents who are zero-beginners which entails employing certain techniques and methods. The teacher should have sufficient knowledge of up to date approaches to teaching English as a foreign

language. Knowledge of grammar-translation method, direct-method, audio-lingual method should be covered in the professional course. He should be exposed to the advantages and defects of the structural and communicative approaches which occupy a wide place in current foreign language learning debate. The communicative/functional approach used in the intermediate programme should be justified as the needs of learners, society and the Saudi authority (Ministry of Education) require it. Objectives of teaching English in both stages: intermediate and secondary should be made known to him. Communicative general and mediate objectives such as are demonstrated in the Model can be developed in a professional course to offer the learners with concrete targets for teaching English functions and communication.

The trainee should also be taught the system and organisation of education in Saudi Arabia including the aims and general objectives to perceive the connection and reinforcement between them and the purposes of learning English. By assimilating the system of education the trainee can be aware of the different kinds of school and other institution; of chains of responsibility; of sources of reform and change and the main features of the history of education in Saudi Arabia (Strevens, 1977). All modern techniques of preparation, presentation, practice and assessment of a lesson are incorporated in the components of the professional course. A student-teacher should also be trained on producing his own teaching aids and material necessary to demonstrate the lesson he teaches.

#### 6.1.1.1. Classroom Pedagogy and Management

The physical aspects of the classroom are important factors in facilitating or inhibiting teaching/learning. The classroom should be clean, tidy, well lit and air-conditioned due to the hot weather

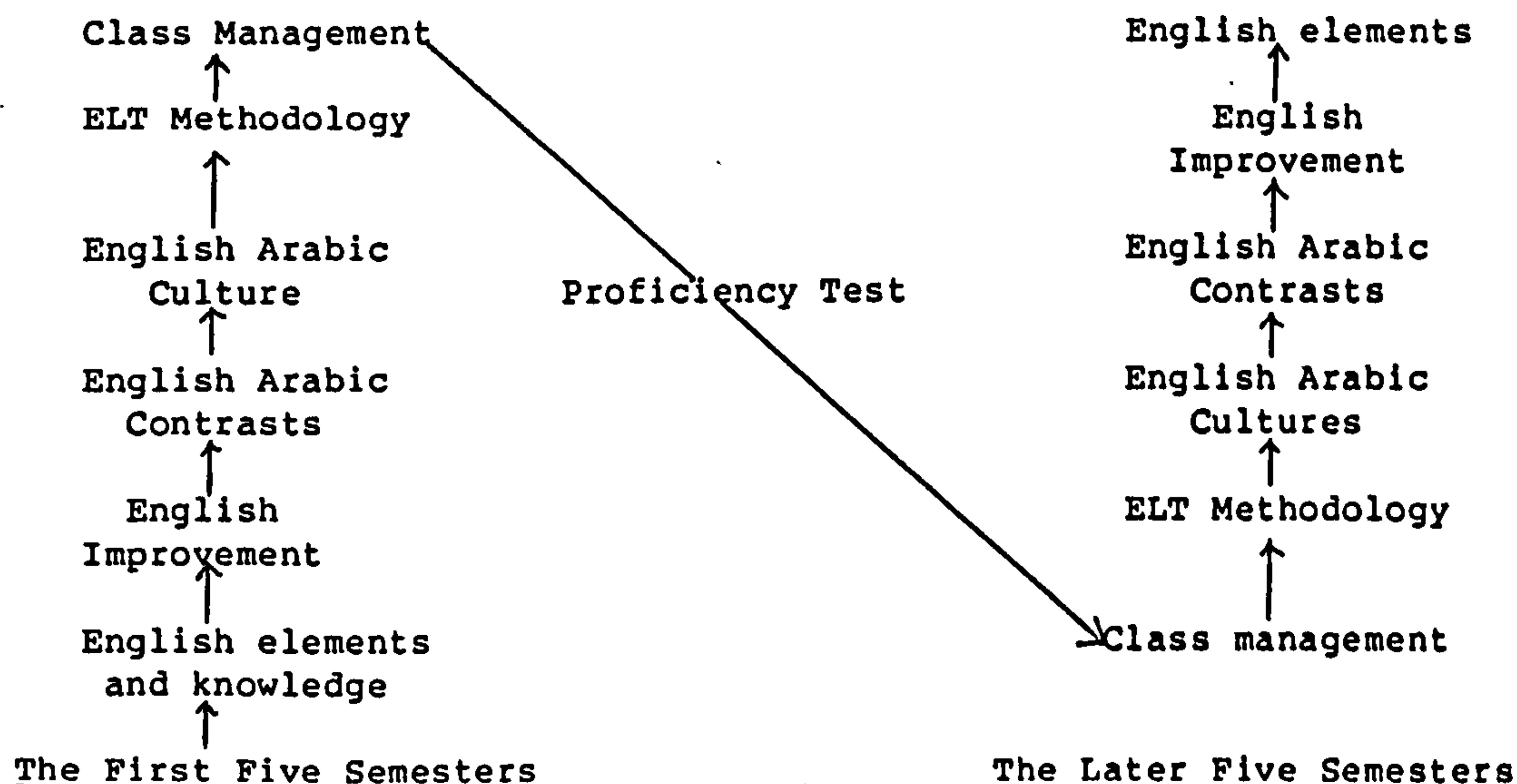


especially during spring and early summer. The job of the English teacher is not different from the job of any other subject teacher in helping students arrange their tables and chairs in rows, taking attendance and getting his chalk, duster objects and teaching aids ready for use. The system and the discipline of the school management is prominent for the teacher of English as they affect his lesson plan in shaping groups of his students, running language games, drama or play, using English outside the class as a means of communication or hanging wall journals or drawings on school and class walls. Teaching practice or as Norris (1977) called it 'practicum' is the course which applies the trainee's theoretical knowledge of English and methodology to the genuine environment of practice that is the classroom. Nevertheless, the student-teacher should be aware of the Saudi students' typical characteristics: their interest, attitudes, perserverance, socio-economic and socio-cultural background (see Chapter 4 - Students' Factors). The components of classroom pedagogy should embrace: general psychology of learning and teaching, psychology of adolescent learners, socio-psychology, school and class management and instructional supervision of English.

Underlying the teacher education so far described are two main principles: interaction and coherence. In other words, the five components of the training programme course interact and are integrated throughout the time of training. Applied linguistics and English improvement should be basic at the early stage of training. However, knowledge of English should give support to communicative competence or language improvement. Since the system of training teachers in Saudi Arabian faculties is American, the trainee may spend between nine semesters (3 years, including summer terms) to

fourteen semesters (7 years, excluding summer terms) to finish the programme requirements (Graduation Requirements, Umm-UL Qura University, 1980). The first five semesters might be spent on English linguistics, applied linguistics and improvement while the final five semesters shift towards the methodology of teaching/ learning English as a foreign language taking into consideration the contrasts in language and cultures between English and Arabic. The shift should be seen as gradual homogeneous development from the subject-matter to its methodology. Similarly the methodology, including the contrasts of the languages and cultures, is used to build up a familiarity with English usage and use and to provide necessary data for achieving competence and performance in English. Table 12 might describe the components of the suggested programme throughout the training period.

TABLE 12



From the Data Investigation (Chapter 3) - Teachers' Part - it can be concluded that English teachers need much more fluency in English. That can be achieved by increasing the importance of courses of speaking, conversation or functional English. They also need to be able to write correct English; although they might not need it in their teaching they may help a friend or a relative in writing a letter or telegraph. Therefore, trainees are recommended after the fourth semester and before joining the methodology course to take a proficiency test on English language knowledge, applied linguistic and language improvement. No trainee with marks below the level assigned for pass should be allowed to register for methodology course.

#### 6.1/2. The Trainer and Suggested Training Activities

The trainer should be a qualified (e.g. PhD in TEFL) and experienced person. He should have spent a considerable period teaching English in Saudi intermediate and secondary schools in order to be acquainted with the different variables and situations surrounding teaching and learning. A number of methods are available for exploiting activities for trainees amongst are: lectures, workshops, plenary and panel discussion, and demonstrations. Lectures are the direct method for supplying the course inputs. Transcripts of lessons and classroom data can be presented via lectures. The raw material of methodology and class pedagogy and management can be incorporated theoretically in lectures. The workshop is important to discuss with a student teacher the material of the syllabus and how to adapt some of it to the students' needs when they arise. Teachers' skills in producing aids and realia is also discussed in a workshop. It is a device which can identify the advantages and appropriateness of an individual lesson-plan in a



democratic argumental way. Plenary discussions can be held with all student teachers to discuss general issues and opinions which occur in class. There might be a panel discussion where particular groups of student teachers of similar circumstances sit together to discuss their matters and requirements. The trainer's job is to organise such groups, monitor their interaction and integrate their outcomes to give the feedback each person needs. Demonstration is used by the trainer for the purpose of visualizing practicalities of certain techniques, methods or strategies.

## 6.2. English Supervision

### Introduction:

Two styles of instructional supervision can be identified in the educational field, viz: inspection and organisation. While inspection implies assessment and evaluation of the teacher's characteristics and abilities, organisation involves coordination and negotiation with the teacher's efforts to teach. The first style is more traditional and still operates in some systems of education, while the second view represents a more modern school of education (Review of Literature). The traditional meaning of supervisor is equivalent to assessor, while, the new sense of supervisor is advisor.

Instructional supervision in Saudi schools tends to be assessment of the teacher's performance rather than improvement of his work. This is cited by Abu-Ali (1978) who says:

"supervision still follows the traditional approach which is confined to visiting the classroom and writing the best routine report"

(p.61)

English supervision is, therefore, expected to follow the same policy of instructional supervision in which its main tasks are: to ensure that teachers follow the syllabus and the instructions handed down to them, to write reports on teachers' performance and to arrange examinations and tests to be held in each term or at the compartmental examination (see Terminology and Chapter 3, English Supervision).

The supervision outlined in the Model includes both processes, organisational support and assessment of the teacher's performance, and so involves dual roles for the supervisor: as an advisor and as an assessor. Nevertheless, his role as an advisor and organiser is more important than his role as an assessor for several reasons.

First, evaluating the teacher's performance should be part of the organisational support that a teacher receives; otherwise he might not be sufficiently motivated to improve his performance. Second, because the Model is communicative teachers will need the help of the supervisor to create the social atmosphere necessary for genuine social communication in the classroom. Third, assessing the teacher's tasks in teaching should be the minor job of the supervisor in order to preserve a supportive relationship with the teacher and give him the security and confidence he needs in his work. English supervision in the Model, should, therefore, lead to interaction, rather than competition, between the leader (supervisor + teacher) and the led (teacher + student).

#### 6.2.1. Supervisor as an advisor

When the English supervisor is seen as an advisor his role is similar to that of a counsellor whose duty is assisting an individual in the correction or development of his teaching skills and habits. Although the system of education in Saudi Arabia requires the monitoring of the performance of its teachers and singling out of those who merit promotion, yet the advisor should be first and foremost an organiser of the teacher's performance and student's activities. His experience allows him to advise the teacher in using certain techniques and methods which prove more effective than others. Three integrative acts are distinguished in the supervisor's role as an advisor in three different phases of supervision; namely, pre-visit, during visit, and post-visit.

##### 6.2.1.1. pre-visit acts:

Before visiting any teacher the supervisor should prepare for a friendly, supportive relationship with the English teacher by under-



standing his cumulative records, circumstances and problems, and some possible answers. All handicaps and obstructions should be considered seriously by the supervisor since they affect the teacher's performance as well as the students' behaviour in the class. The more close the relationship between the supervisor and the teacher becomes, the more the supervisor will understand the circumstances surrounding the instructional situation, and the more his guidance and organisation will become productive. Developing teaching in order to improve learning should be their aim, stemming from the belief that sincere and serious work only exists when they cooperate to achieve the objectives of the curriculum. The main job of the supervisor in this phase is to relax the pedagogical atmosphere by talking to the teacher in a friendly manner, so as to instil confidence instead of fear and irritation. Some preliminary tasks which the supervisor must be aware of before visiting a class are discovering the locality of the school (streets, buildings, mosques or markets around it), facilities available in the school (language labs, playgrounds, cafeteria, theatre, school broadcast, clubs), number of students in each class and the size of each class. Such information justifies using certain approaches and techniques rather than others (Halt, 1980).

#### 6.2.1.2. During visit

The beginning in the classroom should be listening to and observing what the teacher performs. In some cases, where there are innovative points to be demonstrated or difficulties to be surmounted, the teacher is informed about the visit beforehand. When the visit is intended to find out the natural condition of the classroom instruction the teacher may not be informed about it (Ibraheem, 1979). The teacher's performance may not be fully

understood by the supervisor since he does not know what prior tasks and past events have already occurred to bring about the present student-teacher interaction. Notwithstanding, when the supervisor is aware of the diversified layers of objectives available in the Model and the sequence of experiences produced accordingly he is then able to clarify the core relationship which connect both efforts of teacher and his student towards interaction (Bowers, 1987: British Council). The role of the supervisor as an assistant and an organiser is seen when the teacher fails to fulfil a communicative objective, whether specific or immediate. Since the culture of Saudi Arabia is strict and does not permit certain prohibited issues to enter the instructional situation, a supervisor has to pay attention to such phenomena as may occur intentionally or unintentionally and try to sort it out with the teacher of the class. On the other hand, the cultural aspects of English are an indispensable part of learning English and it is the supervisor's responsibility to elaborate and illuminate the distinction between the restricted and unrestricted features of culture when the class-teacher confuses them. Using teaching aids may require the supervisor's guidance, built on his knowledge and experience in the field, not only in using appropriate aids in appropriate settings but also in producing effective teaching aids and material. The supervisor can advise the teacher during the class-session as to the proper way of locating students (in circle, square or group) when they are carrying out games such as: simulation, role play or problem solving. The 'Data Investigation' - Supervisors' Questionnaire - shows that poor ability in speaking English is the main defect in the teachers' performance in the class; a supervisor should encourage the teacher to use English during presentation by commenting on Arabic items uttered by the teacher in

English. Despite the provision of Teacher's Books to English teachers, preparation of the lesson should be a matter of concern to the supervisor. Fresh-teachers are advised to prepare detailed analyses of their lesson-presentations since this helps the supervisor to perceive a thorough plan of strategies and techniques used in instruction. Innovation is a crucial variable which should be kept in balance because too many innovations nullify the interactive language situations and slow the class in reaching the targets. The supervisor should make sure that a balance has been achieved between prior preparation and effective class management (Methodology - Presentation of Lesson). He should also help in keeping the class disciplined by monitoring the class during the visit or providing suggestions for preserving discipline. One perspective supplied by the supervisor is how to involve the student in mental/personal interactions in English so as to arouse their motivation to learn and participate.

#### 6.2.1.3. Post-visit

The supervisor's acts after the visit can be summarised in the following points:

- 1 - discussing with the teacher individually all problems, difficulties and shortcomings that appeared during instruction and relating them to the factors and variables influencing learning at the school which were discussed in the pre-visit phase.
- 2 - discussing the good points in the lesson especially those encouraging the learner to communicate in English.
- 3 - inviting the teachers of English to a seminar/conference to exchange their ideas and suggestions for



certain situations of learning.

- 4 - demonstrating a lesson as an example of what the teachers should do in their teaching.
- 5 - different devices and techniques of lesson-preparation should also be discussed in order for teachers to benefit from colleagues' knowledge and experience.
- 6 - pedagogical points such as: individualized instruction; fluency and accuracy; integration of functions, notions and situations; the advantage of extra-curricular activities: all these can be demonstrated to elicit teachers' ideas on them and provide discussion between teachers and supervisors.
- 7 - establishing English clubs and suggesting what kinds of efforts can be undertaken for achieving this purpose. Facilities offered by the school administration should also be considered side by side with the type of the administration itself: democratic, autocratic, associative or discordant.
- 8 - encouraging class visits and observation between teachers of English in one school and between them and others within the zone of education.

#### 6.2.2. Supervisor as an assessor

When the English supervisor plays the role of the assessor or evaluator he should bear in mind that the English language is not a content-subject but a skill-subject, which implies that the role of the teacher of English is not to instill knowledge, habits, behaviours or customs but rather to change all these in his students

to accommodate the appropriate English behaviours. From this standpoint, the assessment should cover the following areas: personal qualities, knowledge of English language and culture, knowledge of Arabic; professional knowledge and activities.

#### 6.2.2.1. Personal Qualities

This refers to the teacher's personal appearance: well-dressed, punctual and clean, behaving gentle, non-smokers at least inside the school. These qualities are admired by Saudi students and the teacher who possesses such qualities is more respected among the students. He should also be acquainted with the different locations of school rooms, labs and facilities. Knowledge of the system of discipline and the school management system are necessary for the teacher of English in order to deal with every member of the school staff. Personal qualities encompass an awareness of the physical aspects of the classroom which should be clean, tidy and well-lit. These qualities and others can be explored by questioning the teacher on such aspects and observing his behaviour with his students, colleagues, school-staff and administrators. Such personal qualities are required of any teacher, not only English.

#### 6.2.2.2. Knowledge of English language and culture

This refers to linguistic knowledge of the grammar, lexis and sound-system of English in all four of the skills. Since the teacher's use of English is a model which the students will imitate he should be very fluent and reasonably accurate in communication. Few mistakes should appear in the teacher's oral English and none in his written. A reasonable command of English is required to fill the teacher with the confidence necessary to organise communicative situations and manage class students. The Model recommends that the teacher's oral skill is given top priority and therefore assessment

should be made with reference to his ability to talk and communicate in English. The Objectives stated by the Model are the guidelines for such assessment since they encompass the functions, notions and settings required for considerable communication in English (Thomas, in ELT Document: 125, 1987). The culture of English should be part of his knowledge of the language since it reflects the way of life of English-speaking people. The teacher would be assessed in English culture when he uses the cultural meanings of the English items correctly for effective communication.

#### 6.2.2.3. Knowledge of Arabic:

Knowledge in such an area is necessary to define the differences between English and Arabic. It is also important to identify transference and interference from Arabic into English. Literal translation from English into Arabic is seen as a defect in the teacher's performance since equivalents in Arabic rarely give the same meaning in English. Abstract nouns and some structural words may possibly be translated.

#### 6.2.2.4. Pedagogical Knowledge

This category includes general competence as an educator and special competence as a teacher of ELT to Saudi Arabia intermediate school learners. The teacher should be aware of the learners' characteristics, interests, problems and socio-economic background. He should be able to use different techniques and methods in presenting or practising material and assessing his students. He should be able to vary his teaching aids to suit the instructional situations, and his ability to produce suitable teaching aids of different types for multiple purposes should be appraised. Preparation of the lesson and reviewing of previous ones are the major professional knowledge, but strategies used in correcting student's mistakes, making their



tests or quizzes and homework, conducting remedial work and monitoring language games e.g. simulation, role-play, are to be included in the teacher's pedagogical knowledge (Strevens, 1978).

#### 6.2.2.5. Activities

Teachers of English, as teachers of any subject, should be involved in two types of activities: school-management activities and extra-curricular activities.

##### 6.2.2.5.1. School management activities:

- 1 - participating in any administration work he is asked to do either by the headmaster or a colleague.
- 2 - supervising of students during breaks, assembly, prayer-time.
- 3 - writing reports of student's progress
- 4 - checking attendance
- 5 - supervising students' distribution into classes and keeping discipline in their queues in the morning.

##### 6.2.2.5.2. Extra-curricular English activities

- 1 - supervising wall magazines in English.
- 2 - supervising learners in writing proverbs and instructions on boards.
- 3 - directing English plays in the school theatre.
- 4 - contributing English items to school broadcasts

(Abu-Taleb, 1979).

In other words, a teacher of English should know English by having a good command of both the usage and use of English. Secondly, he should realize that learning is the objective of his job and that his process of teaching is only a means to achieve that end. He thus should inculcate in his students the abilities of self-learning and

self-assessment. He has also to know how to adapt his methods to work in his own situation and to satisfy learners' needs.

Inspiration is one of the characteristics of an effective teacher which arises from the love of the profession. A good teacher is the one who maintains spontaneity and freshness in the classroom. He is enthusiastic not only about what he is doing but also about what his students are doing. Flexibility in mind and actions is another quality of a good teacher which enables him to react to fresh ideas of English and methodology. A flexible teacher is one who makes drills more enjoyable and interesting. He should also be sensible to the individual differences of his students and select appropriate times for presenting relevant experiences and activities:

"effective teachers are those who remember that the student is the most important part of the teaching-learning process. The success of second language teachers is ultimately measured by how well students have learned to communicate in the second language."

(Robinett and Batty, in Burt et al, 1977: 43)

#### 6.2.3. Supervisor in the Classroom

During visits and observations done in the English classrooms - during the field of study - it was recognised that the traditional process of visiting is still being carried out. The supervisor enters the class after about thirty minutes when the lesson is halfway. He interrupts the classroom communication in English because students stand up as a mark of respect to welcome him and by sitting at the back of the class watching, assessing and recording in his book. The English classroom is genuine in that all the visible and non-visible behaviours of listening, reading, writing, talking, waking and gestures are parts of the English subject. Unlike history, for example, or maths where time to present or revise knowledge is considered as a part of the class period, English-period is fully occupied by instructional experiences whether linguistic or

para-linguistic. The authenticity of the class is disturbed by such behaviours from the supervisor which depresses instead of developing communication. To avoid such commotion the English supervisor should come in with the teacher at the beginning of the class. The best place for sitting would be at the front of the class to avoid distracting students' attention when they turn their heads back for glances and peeps. Sitting at the front enables the supervisor to see the blackboard better, to hear and listen well to students as well as to observe interaction with the teacher and to participate in exploiting material and organising discourse. Promoting communication should not be forgotten as the essential part of his job.



## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### 7.1. Summary

The basic hypothesis in this study was formulated against the background of English teaching in intermediate school and the direction of the proposed reforms. The hypothesis postulates that the current syllabus design and implementation, in terms of objectives, content and methodology, does not satisfy the needs of the students nor the ambitions of the Saudi nation. English in intermediate stage should be taught to achieve communicative as well as functional purposes relating to education and instruction (academic or vocational). The hypothesis resolved itself into two questions: first, what are the objectives currently being addressed in the teaching of English in intermediate stage 3 given that English would be for general communication, and as a medium for understanding technical and medical instructions? Second, what characteristics should determine the English syllabus then? The content and the methodology of the new syllabus should be based on the students' needs and desires taking into consideration the characteristics of the Saudi learners within a culture which involves many restrictions.

The procedure for investigating the first question involved a survey of the views and attitudes of a large representative sample of all those involved in English teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia. The survey started with students in intermediate stage when a questionnaire was administered to discover their desires from English and their interests in the type of material they want to learn. It also addressed the characteristics of the teachers and supervisors of English as they are involved in the implementation of the syllabus. The wishes of parents were also explored in this investigation since their perspectives and general comments are valuable in choosing materials and conducting students' assessment. The second question

was addressed by investigation of references and documents concerning the nature of students (their interests, attitudes and mental capacity), the requirements of the culture they live in and the stated aims of the Ministry of Education. The facilities available at schools and the type of teacher-training together with instructional supervision were also considered as factors affecting the methods of instruction.

The findings which emerge from such investigations indicate clearly that there are no specific objectives for teaching English in intermediate stage and that the content and instruction are not targeted towards the goals stated by the authorities. In this respect, the findings call for a creation of a new English syllabus: a formal model for developing a foreign language syllabus is therefore presented. A syllabus based on the needs and desires collected from students, teachers and supervisors is then developed. These needs are qualitatively analysed in order to represent the authentic and general desires of the sample population in terms of specific objectives. Other processes which come subsequently concerning the selection of learning experiences and content are easily tackled since the criterion (objectives) is well identified. Such a criterion is also crucial for carrying out valid and reliable assessment as far as face and construct validity are attributed to the clear functions of the tests derived from the objectives. The communicative/functional approach which is advocated by the Model entails reactions and participation not only from students - whom the syllabus is designed for - but also from teachers and supervisors in order to integrate and consummate the efforts for innovation. Developing training for teachers and the monitoring directions of the supervisors are a necessary part of the Model construction in order



to effect an integrative scheme of educational planning. The current qualification of teacher - as elicited from the questionnaire and lessons recorded- show dissatisfaction with their standard as TEFL teachers.

## 7.2. Conclusions and Recommendations

The purpose of this study derives from certain basic assumptions concerning designing language syllabus, teacher preparation and assessment. At the risk of being superficial it might be well to attempt some conclusions and suggestions for the study and draw some recommendations with regard to the implementation only of the syllabus. Two conclusions are stated below:

First, the dissatisfaction at intermediate stage with the present curriculum of English - SASE - seem to be produced by various factors: a faulty syllabus, inadequate level of competence among teachers, lack of instructional material, misleading instructional supervision, poor working conditions, emphasis on reading and writing as opposed to listening and speaking and lack of exposure to spoken English. Thus, the Model supplies an alternative curriculum of English in intermediate stage with all those factors resolved in it.

Secondly, although the Model suggests material and employs different strategies for implementing the material, yet it needs to be reviewed and validated by specialists in the subject-matter in Saudi Arabia. It also needs to be set in textbooks for students and guidebooks for teachers. Media and realia are to be designed to serve different purposes of teaching assessment.

From these two conclusions some recommendations are drawn:

- 1) The teacher of English should be encouraged to modify his class during instruction so as to form groups of students

for performing communicative games. The school authority has to give every possible assistance to accommodate his class (tables and chairs can be situated in circles, items and realia can be supplied). Since such games are prompters for communication the classroom should reflect real communication and the permitted items of the target culture. In this respect, special classrooms with special design equipped with necessary wall-magazines and realia are strongly recommended for each school. Such classrooms would reflect the target environment with its pictures, proverbs and other stimuli in addition to the particular organisation of tables and seats which help in carrying out communicative games competently. The enterprise would not be costly if it is compared with what is really spent on teaching English. All that it needs is an experienced designer with an intelligent understanding of language teaching to make the classroom look provocative visually and practically.

- (2) Language laboratories are important for teaching and more important for assessing students' aural-oral skills and abilities; they should be installed in every school. A report by The British Council (1980) says that there are more than three hundred language laboratories in Saudi schools but rarely are they used either because of the reluctance of teachers to use them or because they need maintenance and repair. Laboratories should not only be used to practise drills and discrete elements of phonology; they should also be used for listening comprehension, speaking, discussion, interviewing.

- (3) Teachers and supervisors should frequently attend refresher courses in English language and methodology. The courses may be run by universities in Saudi Arabia if there is no possibility to sent the teachers abroad. The role of the instructional supervision department in each directorate of education is to carry the responsibility for organising periodical meetings and symposiums among teachers of English for exchanging experiences. For this purpose an English journal is strongly recommended to be published and subscribed to by teachers of English jointly with the supervisors. Such a journal should be a joint responsibility between the teachers (supervisors) and the General Department of Supervision in the Ministry who may monitor and supply articles and instructional suggestions for the journal articles and topics.
- (4) It is important to send trainees, in the last year of their training, to Britain or United States before they teach to improve their oral fluency. Part of their course should be devoted to operating and maintaining language labs and other technological aids.
- (5) Testing students must be for communicative purposes rather than merely linguistic knowledge of English since the students would use the language to fulfil certain functions in social-life and educational life. Accordingly students should be assessed in their oral skills (listening and speaking) despite the problems of unreliability since these are important channels of communication by which language is transmitted. Teaching them adequately and effectively itself involves the real use of English as communication



and testing students in them is necessary if school examinations are to be valid measures of success in achieving the nation's aims.

- (6) An English syllabus for in-service training teachers should be designed and based on the same communicative ground as the Model. This calls for a survey of teachers' ambitions, needs, shortcomings and their competence in teaching English. It also requires a survey of the facilities which can be provided by schools, colleges of education and directorates of education, such as video-tapes and cassette recordings of thematic modules and lessons, language labs, etc, that can help in making training effective. The syllabus structure should correspond with the Model's main features since they both aim at the same target, that is helping students in intermediate stage to communicate in English. It should also incorporate language credits as well as methodology.
- (7) There should be an English journal established to take care of problems, difficulties, solutions and suggestions of English teachers. Such a journal is needed to exchange teachers' experiences and to widen their intellectual awareness of the language usage and use. The journal should be an associative effort contributed to by all teachers of English in each province (or nationally) and edited by a supervisor or a teacher-trainer at Colleges or by both.

## **TERMINOLOGY**

This includes simple definitions of some terms which have been used and which may have special use in this paper.

Allah:	The name of 'God' among Muslims
Ability:	An ability refers to the way in which the language system is manifested as usage and use.
Arab News:	It is an English newspaper published in Saudi Arabia.
Accuracy:	A technique which is used in revision or assessment where the intention is to produce correct form of English rather than to perform a communicative act.
Arafat:	A holy place in Makkah where pilgrims should attend for one day.
Active vocabulary:	Lexis which should be used receptively and productively.
Application:	It refers to the person who applies to enrol in college of education to be a teacher of English.
Approach:	A commitment to particular, specified points of view through which the nature of the language is viewed.
Audio-Lingual:	An approach to language teaching where imitation and drilling precede spontaneous production.
Audio-Visual Aids:	Aids for demonstrating instruction. Pictures and flashcards are visual while tapes are auditory.
Aural-oral Skills:	They refer to the oral skills: listening and speaking.
Authenticity:	The degree to which language texts have the qualities of natural speech or writing.
Basic English:	A simplified type of English used as a lingua franca.
Behavioural objective:	A statement of what a learner is expected to know or be able to do after completing all or part of the task.
Bilingual:	A person who knows and uses two languages competently.
Channel:	The two ways in which a message is conveyed: speech and writing.



Classroom interaction:	All patterns of verbal and non-verbal communication which occur in English within classrooms.
Classroom Management:	The ways in which student behaviour during a class is organised and controlled by the teacher.
Cognitive Context:	The phase where the students can apply what they have learned and acquired in English to different situations and circumstances which show their interaction cognitively.
Communication:	The exchange of ideas, information between two or more persons.
Communicative competence:	The ability to use the language system appropriately in any circumstances.
Compartmental Examination:	A Supplementary Examination given within three months after the second semester-test for those who were not able to pass in less than eight subjects to give them a chance for success.
Concrete noun:	A noun which refers to a physical rather than a quality, state or action, e.g. book, table.
Concurrent validity:	The degree to which a test correlates with some other test which is aimed at measuring the same skill being tested.
Connatative meaning:	The additional meanings that a word has beyond its meaning.
Consonant cluster:	A sequence of two or more consonants.
Construct validity:	The test measures the particular skill or behaviour it sets out to measure.
Content word:	A word refers to a thing, quality, state or action, which have lexical meaning when they are used alone.
Context:	That which occurs before and/or after a word, a phrase or a text.
Competence:	It refers to the idealised but not a real person who would have a complete knowledge of the whole language.
Criterion-referenced test:	A test which measures a student's performance according to a particular standard which has been agreed upon.

Curriculum:	The study and development of goals, objectives, content, implementation, assessment, teacher preparation, supervision and evaluation of an educational system.
Cyclical approach:	A syllabus in which items recur throughout the syllabus but are treated in greater depth when they recur.
Culture:	The total set of beliefs, attitudes, customs, behaviour, social habits, etc. of the members of a particular society.
Decoding:	The process of trying to understand the meaning of a word, phrase or a sentence.
Deductive approach:	It is an approach to language teaching in which learners are taught rules and given specific information about a language wherein rules can be applied.
Deductive meaning:	The meaning of a word or phrase that relates it to phenomena in the real or fictional word.
Domain:	It is an area of human activity in which one particular speech variety or a combination of it is used.
Enabling objectives:	The smaller means in scope required to attain the target objectives.
Evaluation:	The process of judgement which is based on the collective and use of information for making decisions about an educational programme by means of comparison of ascertained measurements against criteria.
Expressive objectives:	They are evocative objectives which serve as a theme around which skills learned before can be elaborated.
Face validity:	The test looks like good.
False beginners:	learners who have not any (or have limited) amount of English.
Foreign language:	A language which is not native (first) nor official (second) but is only taught as a school subject.
Foreign countries:	The non-Arabic countries who speak English as a first, second or foreign language.
Foreign people:	Non-Arabs.

Formative test:	A test which is given during an instructional programme which is usually used as a diagnostic test rather than an achievement test.
Fricative:	A speech sound which is produced by allowing the airstream from the lungs to escape with friction.
Functions:	The categories of behaviours, requests, offers, complaints, etc. which are expressed by foreign language learners.
Function words:	They refer to words which have little meaning on their own but which show grammatical relationships in sentences.
Game:	An organised activity which has an objective and certain rules and which brings about communication in English between players.
General objectives:	They are the broad significant outcomes or achievements towards which effort is directed.
Glattal stop:	A speech sound which traps the airstream from the lungs behind it followed by a sudden release of the air as the glattis is opened.
Grapheme:	The smallest unit in a writing system of a language.
Hearing:	Understanding the signals of a sentence which relate to the phonological and grammatical system of English.
Holistic Approach:	An approach in which behaviour is studied as undivided wholes.
Inductive Approach:	An approach in which learners are not taught grammatical or other types of rules and left to discover rules from his experience of using the language.
Inflection:	The process of adding an affix to a word or changing it according to the rules of grammar.
Inputs:	Language which a learner receives and then learns.
Intakes:	Language which a learner receives and uses as a matter of full recognition of different exponents.
Instruction:	The two processes of teaching and learning English.
Instructional Objectives:	Objectives specify particular behaviours the student is to acquire after having completed one or more learning activities.



Interlocutor:	A person who is actively engaged in conversation.
International Language:	A language in widespread use for international communication.
Interpersonal Function:	A function for maintaining social relationships between people.
Interpretive Abilities (skills):	Listening and reading skills and abilities.
Koran:	The only holy book of Islam which is the first source of law.
Language Acquisition:	The natural ability to learn a language which embraces the ability to identify sound patterns in a new language, the ability to recognise different grammatical functions.
Language Attitudes:	Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language.
Language Learning:	A way in which a learner attempts to work out the meanings and uses of words, grammatical rules and other aspects of language.
Material:	The instructional content and learning experience which help implement the instructional events.
Macro Teaching:	Teaching practice in classes at schools.
Mechanical Drill:	A drill where there is a complete control over the student's response but comprehension is not required.
Message:	What is conveyed in speech or writing from one person to another.
Methodology:	The practices, procedures, techniques, strategies and the principles underlying them.
Micro Teaching:	A teaching used in the training of teachers, in which different teaching skills are practised under carefully controlled conditions.
Monitoring:	Listening to one's own utterances (or written work) to compare what was said (written) with what was intended.
Mina:	A holy place near Makkah where pilgrims spend three nights.
Ministry:	Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia.

Mosque:	A place of worship for Muslims whose prayers are performed in a group.
Motivation:	The factors that determine a person's desire to do something.
National Language:	A language which is considered to be the main language of a nation (Arabic is the national language for Saudi Arabia).
Natural Approach:	An approach which emphasizes on the use of realia and actions to promote spoken language.
Non-verbal Communication:	Communication without the use of words but done by body movement, face expressions or gestures.
Normal Distribution:	A commonly occurring distribution of scores in 'a mean'.
Norm-referenced Test:	It measures how a performance of a particular student or group of students compare with the performance of another group of students whose scores are given as the norm.
National-Functional Syllabus:	A syllabus in which the language content is arranged according to the meanings a learner needs to express through language and the functions the learner will use the language for.
Objectives:	They state the specific, overt changes in student behaviour that are expected to result from participation in a unit of learning activities. In the Model they refer to all types of target: goals and objectives of teaching English in intermediate school.
Pedagogy:	It includes the presentation to the learner of material he is learning, with different techniques of the class and any specialized teaching techniques that may be developed for particular use.
Purpose:	It is the reason for which something exists or is done.
Problem-solving:	It is a type of game which involves selecting from a number of alternatives to reach the target.
Post-Conferences:	Meetings held between a supervisor and teachers after classes.

Progmatics:	The study of the use of language in communication, particularly the relationships between sentences and contexts and situations in which they are used.
Pronunciation:	The way a certain sound or sounds are produced.
Programmed Learning:	A procedure for teaching in which the material to be learned is broken into the smallest possible pieces and presented as a sequence of simple steps.
Proficiency Test:	A test which measures the knowledge of a language in relation to external criteria of competence.
Receptive Activities:	Those which are concerned with the process of understanding language rather than producing it.
Reliability:	The extent to which a test measures its results consistently.
Role-play:	A communicative game in which students act the parts of language users in specified situations.
Situational Approach:	An approach which bases work on predicted situations in which students are likely to need to use the language.
Saudi Gazette:	An English newspaper which is published in Saudi Arabia.
School-curricula:	A compulsory set of terminal objectives to be achieved via courses of study by the end of the period of compulsory schooling.
Subject Advisor:	The general supervisor or the subject specialist in the Ministry of Education.
Setting:	The time and place of a speech event.
Short Term Memory:	It refers to that part of memory where information which is received is stored for short periods of time.
Sentence pattern:	A structure which is considered a basic grammatical pattern for sentences in the language being taught, and which can be used as a model for producing other sentences in the language.
Silent Reading:	Perceiving a written text silently in order to understand its contents.



Simulation:	It is a communicative game where the students simulate real situations and discuss problems within a defined setting.
Summative test:	It is one given at the end of each semester which sums up how much a student has learned from the semester's course.
Scanning:	A type of speed-reading technique which is used when the reader wants to locate a particular piece of information without necessarily understanding the rest of a text or a passage.
Skimming:	A type of rapid reading which is used when the reader wants to get the main idea or ideas from a passage.
Scoring:	Procedures for giving numerical values to the responses in a test.
Shariah:	Islam legislation.
Standard British or American English:	It is the variety of English which has the highest status in Britain or America and which is usually based on the speech and writing of educated native speakers in those two countries.
Strategy:	A cover term for all techniques and procedures used in teaching and learning English inside or outside the classsroom.
Supervisor:	English Supervisor in Saudi Arabian intermediate school.
Structural Syllabus:	A syllabus for the teaching of a language which is based on a selection of the grammatical items and structures.
Target objectives:	They are the terminations which are to be reached only by the end of the course or year study.
Target language:	English
Teaching:	The process of making and implementing decisions before, during and after instruction to increase the probability of learning.
Trainees:	Student-teachers in the department of English in colleges of education in Saudi Arabia.
Topic:	What is talked about or written about.
Unit:	A portion which represents a selection of topics.
Validity:	The extent to which a test measures exactly what it is supposed to measure.

Vocabulary:

A set of lexemes, including single words,  
compound words and idioms..

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